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ABSTRACT

This publication is one of two related volumes that were produced as part of an interdisciplinary effort at the University of Pennsylvania by the School of Social Work and the Wharton School to develop a joint educational program in social welfare management. This particular volume contains guidelines for a field experience program in social welfare management and a proposed syllabus for a course in program evaluation for social services. Also included is a summary of problems and issues involved in developing an interdisciplinary program in social welfare management as identified by participants in a 1975 National Seminar on Education for Management in Social Services. Three main papers presented at that seminar and a summary of participants' recommendations are presented as well. Concluding the volume are reports of two surveys that investigated recent educational offerings in the area of social welfare management. (Author/JG)

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National Project on
Education for Management

Volume I

Guidelines for Field Experience in Education for Management of Social Welfare.

Syllabus for Course in Program Evaluation.

Some Major Issues in Education for Management of Social Welfare.

Two Surveys of the Current Educational Offerings for Management of Social Welfare.

EA 008 427

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Prepared by the Faculty,
Staff and Consultants of
the Project at the School
of Social Work, University
of Pennsylvania

Spring, 1975

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This two-volume report is a product of the National Project on Education for Management of Social Welfare. The Project was jointly conducted during 1974-1975 by the School of Social Work and the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania.

The unique characteristic of the faculty members and the staff attached to the Project is that they had real conviction that the respective knowledge, insights, and skills of social work and of business management could enrich the educational programs offered to social welfare managers and that these offerings can augment social welfare managerial competency in a variety of ways. We owe to this group of professional colleagues both respect and admiration.

We offer a special word of thanks to Dean Harold Lewis and to Mrs. Irene Pernsley who contributed substantually to our initial thinking about interprofessional education for social welfare management through the papers that they wrote for our January 1975 Seminar for educators from Schools of Business and Schools of Social Work involved in education for management.

We owe our thanks as well to the participants in the January Seminar who contributed many of the ideas found herein.

To our entire Advisory Committee we are appreciative for the valuable recommendations and evaluatory feedback concerning the objectives, priorities, and activities of the project which they have provided.

The work of the Project was made possible by funds from the Social and Rehabilitation Services, Community Services Administration of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Project Grant Number 47-P90040/3-01). This grant also provided the funds for the development and dissemination of this report.

Particular thanks are due to Dr. F. Pauline Godwin, Special Assistant to the Commissioner, Community Services Administration who served as our laison with the Federal Agency during 1974-1975 and who was always available with valued counsel.

Elisabeth Schaub, D.S.W.
Project Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

This two-volume report was developed as a result of an interprofessional venture initiated and begun by the School of Social Work and the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania during July, 1974 to June, 1975. The goal of our collaboration has been to develop and further joint programs of education for management of social welfare.

The Wharton School, with our assistance, has developed a volume of syllabi and course outlines. These courses cover the high priority selections proposed by the project for management education in social welfare. They can be jointly offered by schools of social work and business management at universities. The material in the syllabi can also be adapted for use in a variety of continuing education programs for social welfare management. Our material is available here to schools of social work and business for utilization by educators as well as by social welfare organizations interested in the development of educational programs for the management of social welfare.

We have selected two additional areas of importance for consideration by educators interested in joint educational programs and guidelines for them have been developed. One set of guidelines is for developing courses in program evaluation in social welfare. The other is for utilization by educators who wish to develop field experiences and/or practicums for joint degree programs of management education.

In January of 1975 we conducted a seminar in education for management for social welfare held at the Univessity of Pennsylvania. The participants were drawn from among the educators currently conducting #426 projects and from other educators with demonstrated competency and interest in developing interprofessional programs in social welfare and buisness administration. This group of educators provided the project faculty and staff with a variety of innovative and helpful recommendations about the initial work of the project. The seminar participants were asked to meet again in June 1975 to assist us by evaluating the syllabi and guidelines developed by the project and by making recommendations about optimizing their availability and their utilization by other educators. They made other valuable suggestions about furthering programs of management education at the Masters and Post-Mastesr level.

In order to learn more about the interest among social welfare administrators in continuing education in management as well as about the state of the art of management education, we have conducted several surveys, with both administrators and with educators. Our reports analyse some of the continuing educational programs in social welfare management now under the auspices of colleges and universities throughout the country. We have also secured information about the preferences regarding continuing education in management of a national sample of administrators in social welfare programs, as well as from a sample in the state of Pennsylvania.

We have received excellent recommendations from the representative of some of the standard setting associations in the field of social welfare and from a number of social welfare administrators who have made suggestions about the kind of continuing education that in their view, competency in social welfare administration now requires.

The guidelines for field experience in social work education for management and the proposed syllabus for a course in program evaluation begin the first volume of the report. Also in it are the views expressed by some of the participants in the National Seminar on Education for Management in Social Services held in January 1975 at the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia. Included are three main papers presented at the seminar as well as recommendations of the participants regarding developing programs of management education for social services. Ending the first volume, are two reports on some recent educational offerings for social service management as well as on administrators' preferences about their own further education in management science and skills.

The second volume contains the syllabi and outlines of courses in management to be conducted jointly by schools of social work and business management. This material was prepared by the faculty of the Wharton School under the direction of the Wharton Entreprenurial Center at the University of Pennsylvania.

In a certain sense, the work begun at the University of Pennsylvania by the School of Social Work and the Wharton School is unfinished. Hopefully, the readers of this report will carry it further and continue with stimulating and assisting the development and establishment of educational programs in management of social welfare. In our view, interprofessional educational programs for management for social welfare should continue to be infused with management theories, principles and technological information from the field of business administration. The additional work needed to develop joint programs is substantial, for these programs must be developed so as to offer an education in managerial skills appropriate for the value system and the conditions and environment of the social welfare system.

Elisabeth Schaub, D.S.W.
Project Coordinator
School of Social Work
June, 1975

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GUIDELINES FOR FIELD EXPERIENCE IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION FOR MANAGEMENT IN SOCIAL WELFARE

Objectives, Domain, and Criteria

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The material contained in the following pages addresses the field experience in social work education for management and administration. The educational objectives and components which set the domain of management and administrative learning are elaborated. Presented as well are the criteria for selection of field placement agencies, for selection of field assignments, and statements of obligation which should exist between school and placement setting with respect to provision of learning opportunities. The material which specifies the selection of field assignments is organized around a set of concepts reflecting recent trends in administrative practice toward greater emphasis on the managerial aspects of administration.

This material is presented as illustrative and suggested rather than as prescriptive and exhaustive. A user will be able to follow the scheme presented and develop practice assignments according to the variety of learning opportunities embedded within the organization utilized for field placement. Coherence and articulation of this content with the content of the total report is achieved by utilization of concepts and course content developed by faculty members of the Wharton School as found in Volume II of the report of the National Education for Management Project.

Objective of field experience in social work education for management and administration of social welfare services

Through a program of planned learning opportunities, assignments are to be provided in field practice whereby students in social work may experience, integrate, and apply, under the instruction of an employed social work professional, the knowing valuing, and doing components of administration.

I. SETTING THE DOMAIN

In designing learning opportunities in administrative practice, the following elements should be considered:

Acknowledgement is made of the contribution to the development of this material in the following sources: "Reflections on the Preparation of Social Workers for Executive Positions," Monica Shapira, Journal of Education for Social Work (Winter 1971), 55-68; "Developing Field Instruction Foci and Tasks," Roger Lind, 1971; "Core Curriculum, Administrative Sequence," The University of Michigan School of Social Work (February 1975), Preliminary Draft; "Developing Specialized Programs in Social Work Administration in the Master's Degree Program: Field Practice Component," Bernard Neugeboren, Journal of Education for Social Work (Fall 1971), 35-47. The development of these materials is made possible by funds from the Social and Rehabilitation Services, Community Services Administration, of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Project Grant Number 47-P90040/3-01).

For the purposes of these guidelines, administrative practice is defined as those behaviors concerned with planning, mobilizing and directing, and evaluating the services and resources of social agencies directly and on behalf of the agency elsewhere in the community. These behaviors apply equally to efforts which change the nature and effectiveness of social service delivery as to efforts which maintain and enhance social welfare service delivery.

Learning, in this regard, proceeds from the assumption that there are administrative aspects inherent in all social service positions. Here, however, the concern is with practice which is other than as a line worker; the concern is with task requirements at the level of unit/department/service head or the executive level. Such management positions as training officer, program evaluator, field representative, contract reviewer, administrative aide to executives are typical of those which are considered here as are middle level administrators, sub-executives and executive level positions, and supervisors of direct service workers.

The domain of field experience in administration is bounded by value, knowledge, and behavioral parameters. A suggested but not exhaustive description of these elements follows.

Value assumptions undergirding administrative practice

-Administration is essentially an orderly process, depending for its effective performance on goal definition, planned coordination of its parts, clarity in its policies, specificity in the roles of all who are a part of the organizational system, and equity in its discharge of functions.

-An organization (social agency) is composed of individuals who enact the behaviors of system-specific roles. It is also more than the sum of its interacting parts in the sense that the charter, auspice, policies, and roles exist without regard to the persons who occupy the roles and statuses of the organization.

-An assumption that competence resides in the persons occupying positions in the organizational structure undergirds utilization of human resources.

-To the extent that a social agency is an open system, it is in a state of change and is amenable to planned, intentional influence.

-Organizational stability occurs by means of the orderly and progressive achievement of accomodation between maintenance of and modification of the organization.

-Skills in analysis and skills in interpersonal relations are both required for managerial effectiveness of social welfare organization albeit differentially possessed by managers and differentially utilized according to organizational level occupied by managers and demands of management task.

-Participation on the part of those likely to be affected by decisions is desirable even while leadership is retained in the executive position.

-The administrative style of the person occupying the executive position will influence the degree of innovation which is introduced or permitted throughout the organization.

-It is the task and responsibility of the administrator of social welfare administrators to find a way of preserving the values of the profession in a bureaucracy. To stand at the center of several conflicting forces and to retain central identity with a professional stance becomes the role of the social welfare manager-administrator.

-Ethical guides to conduct found in the NASW Code of Ethics and the value system of the social work profession apply equally to social workers who administer as to social workers in other levels and modes of practice.

-Accountability for professional practice is to clients, funding source, profession, society via community auspice, and governing (policy making) body just as sanction is derived from clients and society in an array of institutional arrangements.

Knowledge bases undergirding administrative practice

In the material below, fields of administrative practice knowledge are presented as general concepts and discrete informational areas or technologies are arrayed as specific content to be learned. Sequence and progression of learning may then be designed in a fashion which maximizes student learning patterns and styles of course organization. The general and specific content areas portrayed on the following pages represent recent thinking in administrative practice and are those identified by an interdisciplinary group of faculty members from schools of business administration and schools of social work who served as consultants to the National Management Education Project.

Learning situations may be begun at any point of the material which follows and then related to any other part of the content as learning needs, teaching opportunities, and practice assignments dictate.

General	Specific
EXTERNAL, ENVIRONMENTAL RELATIONS	Organization of social welfare services
	Political processes
	Legislative processes
	Interagency cooperation
	Policy analysis
	Understanding, assessment and evaluation of the organizational environment
	Consumer participation/citizen participation
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT	Planning methods (PERT, PPBS, etc.)
	Operations research
	Organizational analysis
	Decision theory
PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION	Administrative structures, roles, functions
	Administrative leadership
	Administrative strategies and tactics
	Values and ethics of social service administration
PROGRAM EVALUATION	Operations research
	Cost benefit analysis
	Systems analysis
	Quantitative methods
	Quality control methods
SYSTEM CHANGE	Organizational analysis
	Goal formulation
	System restructuring
	Management of organizational conflict
	Organization development
FISCAL MANAGEMENT	Budgets and budgeting
	Fiscal control
	Funding sources and allocation procedures
	Grantsmanship
	Cost analysis
	Accountability
PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT	Job analysis
	Collective bargaining
	Professionals in organizations
	Supervision, staff development technologies
	Grievance procedures
	Conflict management
	Contract administration
	MBO

General	Specific
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	Types of information systems, capabilities, cost Output utilization Issues of confidentiality; preservation of human values and quality service values in management information systems Computer technology

The above general and specific knowledge areas are suggested and illustrative rather than inclusive. Some repetition inevitably occurs and even more will be seen to occur in the following section on behaviors wherein the same technology or behavior may serve several uses. The use of a given technology or behavior will depend on the sequence or phase of management/administrative practice occurring at the time that the choice is made to utilize a given skill. For example, PPBS and MBO may be utilized as planning tools, implementing tools, and evaluation tools. The teaching (and use) of any of these technical resources will reflect a spiral or matrix approach to learning rather than a linear approach.

Behavioral aspects of administrative practice

The format to be utilized in this section will add behavioral dimensions to the delineation of general and specific knowledge areas in the preceding section. Again, the presentation is illustrative and not inclusive:

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS
EXTERNAL, ENVIRONMENTAL RELATIONS	Political processes Legislative processes Maintaining communication with external systems Interagency cooperation Understanding organizational environment	Lobbying Drafting position papers Public relations Public information, education Coalition activities Community survey Giving testimony
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT	Planning methods (PERT, PPBS, etc.)	Needs assessment
	Decision theory	Analysis of agency policy and service decisions by utilization of various decision and planning technologies
	Organizational analysis	
PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION	Administrative roles	Staff leadership to boards, committees, etc.
	Administrative strategies and tactics	Delegation of authority; decentralization of decision making to work units Coordinate activities and resources
	Values and ethics of administration	Initiate staff development on ethical behavior

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS
PROGRAM EVALUATION (Developed in full in another section of this report)	Operations research	Specify operations in measurable terms and generate internal monitoring and feedback
	Cost benefit analysis	Utilize a cost accounting budget and program review format
SYSTEM CHANGE	System restructuring	Analysis of system fuctioning and initiation of one or more re-alignments of structural elements
	Organization development	Analysis of functioning of subparts of organization Analysis of communication patterns in organization
FISCAL MANAGEMENT	Budgets and budgetting	Budget making, budget administration, budget control, including cost analysis Utilization of various budget methods and analysis of alternative types
	Fiscal control	Accounting, auditing, etc.
	Grantsmanship	Proposal writing, grant submission
	Accountability	Report writing, goal oriented reporting

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS
PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT	Professionals in organizations	Staff recruitment, selection assignment, separation, firing
	Conflict management	Grievance procedures developed
	Supervision, staff development	Training methods, supervisor as manager of work unit
	Job analysis	Job descriptions, periodic review, MBO
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	Types of information systems	Data processing, instrumentation, input specification
	Output utilization	Computer information for record keeping, decision making, program planning and development, auditing, fiscal control, etc. Collaboration with computer technician

A scheme or model such as the one presented in the preceding sections may be utilized for identification of the behaviors which are to be learned by students of social work in the managerial aspects of administration. The model serves as a device for screening behaviors and knowledge areas to highlight and specify those agency tasks which may appropriately serve as the ground for learning. The section which follows is a logical extension of that model.

II. PRINCIPLES GOVERNING FIELD EXPERIENCES

Field practice assignments may be selected and developed by means of a match or "fit" between the student's expressed learning needs and goals, the field instructor's assessment of the learning needs, and the learning opportunities inherent in the practice assignments which are composed of agency tasks designated for student learning. The scheme presented in the following pages portrays the fact that learning opportunities may be identified as appropriate to student learning in a fashion that extends the General-Specific-Behaviors format another dimension.

Students selected for field placement assignment within administrative experience should be screened carefully and every attempt made, insofar as possible, to select those who possess the following characteristics:

-analytic skills with some demonstrated capacity to exercise judgment and discretionary power appropriately

-interpersonal skills including interviewing

-some capacity to maintain oneself in the face of ambiguity and uncertainty

-ability to express oneself clearly and concisely in oral and written communication

-skill in and demonstrated capacity in discussion leading

-a basic identity as a social worker

Criteria for placement

Criteria which exist for the selection of field agencies for student placement should flow from a set of educational principles. These are detailed below. Following that, the expectations which both school and agency may legitimately hold for each other are spelled out. Agreements between school and agency should be on a written, contractual basis; this procedure will enhance the evaluation process for adequacy of agency and assignments available and will, at the same time, provide its own unique learning experience.

Educational principles:

1. There should be congruence and articulation between field practice assignments and classroom content in order to facilitate transfer and applicability of learning.

2. Field practice assignments should be selected with regard for the inherent learning opportunities

3. Criteria and expectations for amount of time spent in the field; availability of field instructor; availability of office space, phone supplies, etc.; appropriateness of assignments; practice with a range of client units and modalities, etc.; which apply for any student should apply for students of administrative practice.

4. Assignments selected for the learning opportunities afforded should be those which are actual agency tasks, encompassable in the time available, and capable of being sustained to completion.

5. Students who are given administrative assignments should be those with substantial prior employed experience in a social welfare service. It is essential that their prior experience include direct service functions and desirable that their assignments have included some indirect service functions as well.

6. Assignments given should take into account the size and complexity of the agency and position occupied by the student in prior employment in order to capitalize on readiness to learn.

7. Top-level agency executives should provide the field instruction, even though students' assignments may involve them with others in the structure, in order that students' roles and activities carry the legitimation of authority necessary for effective functioning.

8. Field instruction lodged with top-level executive personnel means that a wider range of assignments will be available in contrast to the narrower range available elsewhere in the structure.

9. A method needs to be provided for ongoing analysis, monitoring and feedback in order to make changes in assignment or field instruction early and in an informed fashion.

Expectations between school and agency:

School

Will provide the classroom content which supports the application expected of the student in the field or will guide the student to other resources needed to help the student carry assignments;

Will provide liaison between school and agency in the person of a designated faculty member;

Will provide consultation, ongoing orientation, periodic meetings, and communication regarding school based expectations for learning;

Will provide continuing education for field instructors covering the content to which students are exposed in order to facilitate articulation between school and field;

Will provide analysis and evaluation of student learning assignments in terms of the consequences for student learning.

Agency

Will make selective, educationally-determined assignment of tasks for student learning;

Will communicate in detail the learning opportunities available in the agency which afford learning for administrative practice;

Will agree to invest the appropriate amount of authority and responsibility in the student for carrying out administrative duties;

Will agree to provide the expected pattern and structure of agency-based field instruction;

Will select and assign top-level executives as field instructors even though the student's work may be done elsewhere in the structure and with consultation with another staff member;

Will provide assignments which are actual agency tasks, fulfilling actual agency responsibilities as well as facilitating student learning.

III. GUIDELINES FOR SELECTING FIELD PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS

The following section elaborates, illustrates and suggests a scheme for designing and selecting student field practice assignments according to the learning opportunities inherent in given tasks. The scheme requires that the field instructor or person within the agency responsible for student assignments shall have screened and reviewed the possible tasks with regard for the specifi learnings--opportunities to practice specified behavior--imbedded in those tasks which will facilitate and advance student learning. Sequence and progression, scope and balance may then be designed according to student need, readiness, and task availability.

The practice assignments which are suggested flow logically from the conceptual frame utilized throughout this section and are suggested, only. Variations on these suggestions and others not mentioned here will naturally suggest themselves according to specific agencies and the learning opportunities which can be found ther

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS
EXTERNAL, ENVIRONMENTAL RELATIONS	Political processes Legislative processes Maintaining communication with external systems Interagency cooperation Understanding organizational environment	Lobbying Drafting position papers Public relations Public information, education Coalition activities Community survey Giving testimony	Staff a committee of volunteers to work on a particular issue Prepare and present an interpretive slide show to agency visitor groups Assemble resources, develop position paper, present testimony to legislative committee Survey agency constituencies regarding shifts in service Act as staff liasion aide to legislator Develop and present a community training program for probation officers, police officers, counselors of various types on agency approach to service
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT	Planning methods (PERT, PPBS, etc.) Decision theory Organizational analysis Goal attainment scaling and similar goal-oriented planning techniques Operations research	Needs assessment Analysis of agency policy and service decisions by utilization of various decision and planning technologies	Staff a planning committee Give staff leadership to planning for the revision of a service or preparing to deliver an already operating service to a specific population Review and revise agency manual, protocols of service and functions Serve as a member of the staff agenda committee planning staff administrative or staff development meetings Develop a community resource file regarding a particular set of services Prepare a cost benefit analysis for matching program to budget

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT (continued)			Construct a chart of organization of the agency showing the formal and informal structures
PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION	Administrative roles Administrative strategies and tactics Values and ethics of administration	Staff leadership to boards, committees, etc. Delegation of authority; decentralization of decision making to work units Coordinate activities and resources Initiate staff development on ethical behavior issue	Plan and deliver staff development to clerical workers on agency service and methods of handling short-term crisis situations Review informational mailings which come into the agency, synthesize and screen it, disseminate the key points to others in the agency Review and disseminate legislative information Chair a short-term, task-specific committee
PROGRAM EVALUATION (DEVELOPED IN FULL IN ANOTHER SECTION OF THIS REPORT)	Operations research Cost benefit analysis	Specify operations in measurable terms and generate internal monitoring and feedback Utilize a cost accounting budget and program review format	Conduct a search of literature for evaluation techniques and prepare an abstract of the information Develop procedural statements/protocols specific to various agency service functions Utilize and modify, if necessary, an evaluative technique with a specific service; use consultation where indicated Develop the monitoring material for purchase-of-service contracts with the service provider agency Design forms and procedures for matching program with budget in a cost-benefit analysis format

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS
SYSTEM CHANGE	System restructuring Organization development	Analysis of system functioning and initiation of one or more realignments of structural elements Analysis of functioning of subparts of organization Analysis of communication patterns in organization	Construct a chart of informal channels of communication in the agency to identify blocks and develop a proposal for presentation to executive staff regarding removing those blocks Analyze and re-construct the formal chart of agency organization Gather data within the agency and assemble groups of appropriate personnel to formulate positions regarding impact of some agency policy Analyze agency policies and means of dissemination of those policies against the outcomes of service Monitor and analyze a change process or the initiation of a new service through the organization across the time consumed by the change or initiation
FISCAL MANAGEMENT	Budgets and budgeting Fiscal control Grantsmanship Accountability	Budget making, budget administration, budget control, including cost analysis Utilization of various budget methods and analysis of alternative types Accounting, auditing, etc. Proposal writing; grant submission Report writing, goal-oriented reporting	Prepare a cost analysis of agency service or sub-unit Develop procedures for fiscal management for a given service and monitor it Monitor the budget in a given sub-unit Work out third party payment or purchase-of-service procedures with the service providing agency (review regulations, billing procedures, budget monitoring procedures) Assist in the preparation of a grant proposal including program narrative and budget pro-

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	BEHAVIORS	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS
PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT	Professionals in organizations Conflict management Supervision, staff development Job analysis	Staff recruitment, selection, assignment, separation, firing Grievance procedures developed Training methods, supervisor as manager of work unit Job descriptions, periodic review, MBO	Conduct a functional job analysis of the positions within a given sub-unit Develop evaluation guidelines and forms appropriate to a given service Orient new staff regarding benefits and agency services (requires collaboration with personnel department) Supervise and administer a volunteer department
INFORMATION SYSTEMS	Types of information systems Output utilization Issues of confidentiality	Data processing, instrumentation, input specification Computer information for record keeping, decision making, program planning and development, auditing, fiscal control, etc. Collaboration with computer technician	Prepare a report, utilizing a literature review if appropriate, specifying a definition of unit of service to be used in monitoring service delivery Develop the procedures for arraying agency service information inot forms for reporting and recording using information systems Prepare a simple form for recording service statistics and perform simple data processing procedures

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PROPOSED SYLLABUS FOR A TWO SEMESTER COURSE IN PROGRAM EVALUATION FOR THE SOCIAL SERVICES

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PROGRAM EVALUATION IN THE SOCIAL WORK CURRICULUM

Introduction

The demand for accountability within the human services has never been greater than it is at the present time. The general public's insistence on a more efficiently operated social welfare system, however, comes at a time when the profession seems least prepared to provide the programmatic answers which both it and the general public seek. The effectiveness of traditional methods of rendering social services has come under sharp criticism and most administrators now recognize that the grossly inadequate resources which have been used to operate social welfare activities have done little to alter the fundamental social problems brought by clients to the system. More importantly, administrators are also beginning to recognize that a continuation of the present administrative structure of welfare may even be serving to reinforce some of the more elusive systemic deficiencies for which personal and institutional change is required.

The current crisis of professional accountability is compounded by the reality that fewer than one percent of all social workers are engaged in research or program evaluation activities (Maas, 1966: 186). The situation is further hampered by the fact that somewhat less than one tenth of one percent of the total social welfare dollar is allocated to the gathering of organizational intelligence for purposes of more effective program planning and social service delivery (Tripodi, 1974:7). Formal program evaluation is almost non-existent throughout the social service system and few administrators base critical decisions on other than impressionistic, even subjective, data of questionable value to all concerned.

Program Evaluation as a Management Tool

The implementation of a comprehensive, on-going, and reliable system of program evaluation can greatly assist program managers in arriving at critical choices between competing programmatic alternatives. When used effectively, program evaluation serves to inform managers of the relative merits and limitations inherent in particular decisions by providing them with relevant quantitative or other systematically gathered data. Such data can be used to: (a) improve current or existing agency programs; or, (b) support the adoption of new or modified service approaches which have been demonstrated to be more effective in meeting client needs.

The schema presented in Chart I illustrates the use of program evaluation data in selecting between two programmatic alternatives. The model takes into account the relative cost and effectiveness of each alternative and, in so doing, informs the manager about the relative fiscal and service advantages associated with the selection of each alternative. Such a decisional model is not available to the administrator without high quality program evaluation input, however. The adoption of this methodology and its related technology on the other hand, will place such tools at the disposal of the social welfare administrator.

Program Evaluation in Schools of Social Work

The following materials summarize a curricular design for the inclusion of program evaluation content in the curricula of schools of social work. They have been prepared on the assumption that the demand

CHART I

COST-EFFECTIVENESS DECISION MODEL FOR INTERVENTION STRATEGIES X AND Y

		COST COMPARISON BETWEEN TARGET GROUPS X AND Y		
		X COSTS LESS	X COSTS SAME	X COSTS MORE
EFFECTIVENESS COMPARISON BETWEEN TARGET GROUPS X AND Y	X OUTCOME IS LESS POSITIVE	1 ?	4 CHOOSE Y	7 CHOOSE Y
	X OUTCOME IS AS POSITIVE	2 CHOOSE X	5 NO DIFFERENCE	8 CHOOSE Y
	X OUTCOME IS MORE POSITIVE	3 CHOOSE X	6 CHOOSE X	9 ?

Adopted from: Fishman, 1975, Adams County Mental Health Center for professional accountability will continue far into the future. The author assumes that the profession will respond to these pressures through the preparation of increased numbers of social work practitioners who are competent to conduct high quality research into the adequacy of various levels of professional practice. The author also assumes that the training of competent social program evaluators will be undertaken at the graduate and post-graduate level of social work education, and that, increasingly, specialized programs of continuing education will be available to existing agency personnel to assist them in the acquisition of program evaluation skills. Further, the author assumes that social work educators recognize that research/program evaluation skills are both technical and highly process-based in nature and that training, therefore, requires an extended period of learning time. In general, program evaluation skills cannot be acquired through time limited workshops, institutes and other short-term training models which do not allow sufficient opportunity for students to identify and resolve the highly complex agency-specific problems which arise in the actual process of conducting program evaluation research (Estes, 1975).

The curricular materials are organized into four sections, three of which contain detailed course outlines directly relevant for specialized education in social program evaluation.

A. Purpose and Values of the Social Work Profession
B. Introduction to Social Research (1 Credit Unit)
C. Principles of Social Program Evaluation (1 Credit Unit)
D. Automated Data Processing and Management Information Systems (1 Credit Unit).

Content areas A, B, and C are sequential in nature, but content area D may occur concurrent with learning in areas B and C. A method for related field practicum is also suggested and a generous bibliography on program evaluation in the human services is provided for the reader at the end of the chapter.

As with other sections of this report, these materials were prepared in conjunction with a national project seeking to identify concepts and practices of business administration which may be of value to administrators in the human service arena. This project was undertaken jointly by the Schools of Social Work and Business Administration of the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia. The results of that collaboration are reported in the two volumes currently in the possession of the reader.

The content described in this section of the report was not developed in collaboration with faculty from the business school. The thoughtful reader, however, may wish to study the chapters entitled "Information Systems" and "Quantitative Methods" which appear in Volume II of the report. These chapters should serve as valuable supplements to the existing chapter inasmuch as they focus in more detail on selected aspects of the suggested content areas proposed by this writer. In many respects, however, social program evaluation is a practice unique to the human service arena and the reader, therefore, should be selective in adopting other evaluative approaches which fail to take sufficient cognizance of the special social purposes assigned by society to the not-for-profit human service institution or agency (e.g. exclusive concern for fiscal accountability or efficiency without regard to human values or other relevant service concerns).

Educational Objectives

The proposed three-part program of training for program evaluation has five closely inter-related learning objectives;

(1) to prepare graduate level social work students and practicing professionals for advanced managerial roles in social agencies;

(2) to equip them with the minimal skills necessary to design and carry out systematic inquiry into the adequacy of current social agency functioning;

(3) to provide students with specialized knowledge in the principles and techniques of social program evaluation undertaken within the context of high quality social research;

(4) to enable students to redesign current data management practices so as to make them more responsive of the needs of the modern social agency, its clients, and the broader network of social welfare services;

(5) finally, to help students develop skill in the use of social program evaluation as a professional instrument for use in furthering needed social agency and societal changes.

These objectives were used as guides by the author in preparing the materials which follow and should serve to assist social work educators in adapting the material to their own particular educational needs. In general, the continuing education administrator should feel free to substitute or eliminate those content areas or background skills which their students already possess at the point of embarking upon training in the research/evaluation area.

Curricular Structure

Essentially, the skillful social program evaluator requires specialized knowledge in four discrete content areas: (a) the organizing social purpose and values of the social welfare enterprise and the social work profession; (b) basic research methodology; (c) principles and methods of program evaluation; and, (d) automated data processing and information retrieval systems. Each of these content areas will be discussed below:

A. Purpose and Values of Social Work and Social Welfare

Research or program evaluation conducted within a framework which fails to take cognizance of the fundamental professional values and organizing human purposes of the social welfare system would be sterile indeed! Such persons are not likely to perceive the value of overall interpersonal and institutional changes and, in a general way at least, would not be able to uncover the subtle program goals and objectives associated with a process-based approach to practice. In addition to a concern for task, productivity, efficiency and effectiveness, the skillful social program evaluator must also possess an identification with and concern for achievement of fundamental organizing purposes of the social welfare system.

Failure to identify with these purposes, in the author's experience, represents a serious deficiency on the part of the evaluator and usually results in abortive evaluative efforts which rarely become integrated into on-going agency practices or program modifications.

This author believes that social program evaluation can best be conducted by persons whose competencies include both the technique of program evaluation and the value base of the relevant human service profession. For social worker professionals, such a perspective is best aquired through a graduate program of social work education which exposes the student to the realities of both direct and indirect service delivery. This perspective is further enriched by disciplined study of the history and philosophy of the profession as well as the values implicit in social policy development and implementation. The profession's traditional focus on the growth and development of the individual within a social, psychological, political, legal, and economic milieu also serves to broaden the evaluator's knowledge base of the systems which he/she seeks to study. Further, the profession's commitment to significant social change through a disciplined purposeful process also constitutes an important knowledge area for the program evaluator.

Based on experience, the social program evaluator should be a fully qualified practitioner within a recognized human service profession. The possession of such credentials fosters communication between the evaluator and those persons and programs to be evaluated and, at the same time, insures that the evaluator shares an identification with the fundamental values and purposes of the social welfare system. The possession of a common professional base also insures that the evaluator will be sensitive to the over-riding concerns of program staff and administrators and that, like them, he/she will seek to specify recommendations and solutions which further the development of a more invigorated, albeit changed, social welfare system. Repeated experience has shown that program evaluators functioning within social agencies, at least upon concluding their educations, should possess at least a minimum professional degree in social work.

Assuming that the program evaluation student shares an identification with the fundamental goals, objectives, and values of a relevant human service profession, specialized training in this research area can then be conducted within a context anchored to the organizational needs of the social agency. This context-specific training should encompass three areas: (a) basic research methodology; (b) principles of social program evaluation; and, (c) automated data processing and information retreival.

Before introducing the proposed curricular design for each of the three technical content areas underlying program evaluation skill, it is important to note that these materials are intended to assist social work educators with the development of relevant program evaluation content in their curricula. These materials are not exhaustive in format but should prove sufficient for purposes of most schools and programs of continuing education. The proposed model is adaptable for use at both the masters and doctoral level and, with some additional specification, can be tailored for use on a continuing education basis as well. Because of the assumptions underlying these materials, the proposed model will probably be of limited use to programs of undergraduate social work education except on a more general basis.

COURSE I: INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL RESEARCH

The syllabus for INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL RESEARCH has been organized on the assumption that all graduate Schools of Social Work and post-graduate programs of continuing education have competent research educators either currently on their facilities or readily available to them. Consequently, the material is schematic in its presentation and suggests only those major research issues or concepts which should be contained in an introductory course on research methodology. The author leaves to the individual faculty member the choice of technique or approach for introducing this basic content. Similarly, the author made no effort to key the various concepts specified in the syllabus to relevant bibliographic literature. Introductory research content is well established in the social work curriculum, and, no doubt, each research teacher has his or her own preferences with respect to illustrative literature. Some outstanding bibliographic references are provided for concepts not usually covered in introductory courses, however, and the instructor may well wish to begin with these suggestive readings in the process of building a more comprehensive course bibliography.

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL RESEARCH has been designed to span a complete semester of fifteen weeks. The optimal number of weeks to be spent on each course module is designated in brackets immediately to the right of each major content area. The course can be staffed either by a single faculty member or, if preferred, through the resources of several instructors each of whom undertakes to complete one or more modules of the course in their area of greatest competence, e.g., research design, interviewing, data analysis, sampling, etc.. Because of the importance of this introductory course, however, should the latter staffing pattern be preferred, the author does urge that a single faculty member be assigned the on-going responsibility of helping students integrate the teaching of the several instructors into a framework which, at once, is more consistent, comprehensive and unified in its final impact. At the beginning level, at least, a poorly integrated introductory course will place students at a severe disadvantage as they move into the more methodologically complex courses in Program Evaluation and Computer Technology.

PROPOSED SYLLABUS FOR INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL RESEARCH (1 Credit Unit)

I. The Functions of Research in Social Work (1)

   A. Purposes of Research

      1. Description

      2. Explanation

      3. Prediction

      4. Control

   B. Social Research and Social Policy (Sherwood and Freeman, 1970)

II. The Logic of Social Research

   A. Preliminary Stages of Research (3)

      1. Identification of the Research Problem

      2. Conceptualization

      3. Theory Building

      4. Hypothesis Derivation

      5. Operationalization

- B. The Design of Social Research (2)
    - 1. Field Research (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973)
    - 2. Surveys
    - 3. Experiments
    - 4. Quasi-Experimental Designs (Campbell and Stanley, 1966)
    - 5. Impact Research and Program Evaluation (Weiss, 1972)

III Sampling and Probability (1)

- A. Randomness and Probability
- B. Types of Sampling
    - 1. Probability
    - 2. Non-Probability

IV. Measurement of Social Research (2)

- A. Instrument Construction
- B. Scaling and Scale Construction
    - 1. Available scales (Chun, *et al*., 1973).
    - 2. Original Scales
- C. Questionnaire Construction
- D. Quantitative Methods (See R.C. Jones, Vol. II, of the present report, pages 146-157).

V. Data Collection (2)

- A. Sources of Available Data
    - 1. Libraries and Archives
    - 2. Agency Case Records
    - 3. Agency Administrative Records
- B. Sources of Original Data

1. Observation and Judgments (Webb, et al., 1966).
2. Questionnaires
3. Interviewing

VI. Data Analysis (2)

A. Use of the Computer and Automated Data Processing Techniques (Nie, et al., 1970; 1975).

VII. The Politics of Agency-Based Research (1)

A. Role of the Researcher (Twain, 1972; DHEW, 1972a; 1972b; 1972c; Perry and Wynn, 1959).

VIII The Research Report (1)

COURSE II: PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL PROGRAM EVALUATION

A. Prerequisites

Prerequisite to the course on PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL PROGRAM EVALUATION should be a successfully completed course in basic research methodology, such as that just described. The present course assumes that the student will have acquired at least beginning skills in the design and conduct of general research and that only a minimal amount of the present course time will be spent in reviewing research principles of an elementary level. Comparable experience in research practice may serve as an acceptable substitute for a recent formal course in research methodology in the case of an exceptional student or an experienced research practitioner.

B. Length of Training

Because of the methodological complexities inherent in social program evaluation, the course has been designed to span a period of at least one full semester (fifteen weeks). For schools or continuing education centers which can support a more leisurely educational program the course can easily be expanded to cover two full terms in order to optimize the student's acquisition of essential practice skills. Similarly, the content of the present syllabus can also be sharply delimited for purposes of short-term institutes and time limited training. Courses spanning a period of less than one semester, however, should not have as one of their immediate objectives the student's acquisition of evaluative skill since learning at this depth has been demonstrated to emerge only over time in relationship to carefully spaced pedagogical and experiential learning opportunities (Estes, 1975).

C. Course Content

1. Scope of Social Program Evaluation

Social program evaluation refers to the systematic gathering of information relating to the functioning of human service programs that is useful in making significant programmatic decisions. Evaluation implies placing a "value" on the structuring and outcome of these programs and, like all research, requires the systematic collection of data using established scientific procedures and principles. For the social agency, evaluative efforts are focused upon identifying current agency functioning and, as needed, to assist administrators and service workers in increasing the effectiveness of their services.

When undertaken skillfully, social program evaluation permits the maximum involvement of all relevant organizational members in the process of assessing program effectiveness. Program evaluation is not undertaken within an agency vacumn. Unlike research in general, the results of program evaluation are rarely prepared for dissemination on an extra-agency basis.

2. Levels of Evaluation

Social program evaluation may occur at various levels within the social agency depending upon (a) the sophistication of the evaluator, (b) the informational capability of the social agency and, (c) the focus of the evaluative effort. At the present time, most agency evaluation efforts tend to be rather limited in scope, focusing primarily upon the gathering and reporting of routine client utilization information of a statistical nature (e.g., frequency and type of client contacts). Few social agencies have the resources of a fully qualified program evaluator on their staff who can conduct a broader range of specialized systems management and service effectiveness studies.

The cube reprinted in Chart II outlines a three dimensional model of program evaluation activities which are relevant to the information gathering needs of most sizable social agencies. The cube can be used to assess the level of current agency evaluative activities and, as appropriate, to determine new areas for evaluative expansion. The cube also defines the essential rol of the evaluator at the various levels of evaluation to be undertaken.

3. Types of Evaluative Activities

Evaluation encompasses four major categories of research effort:

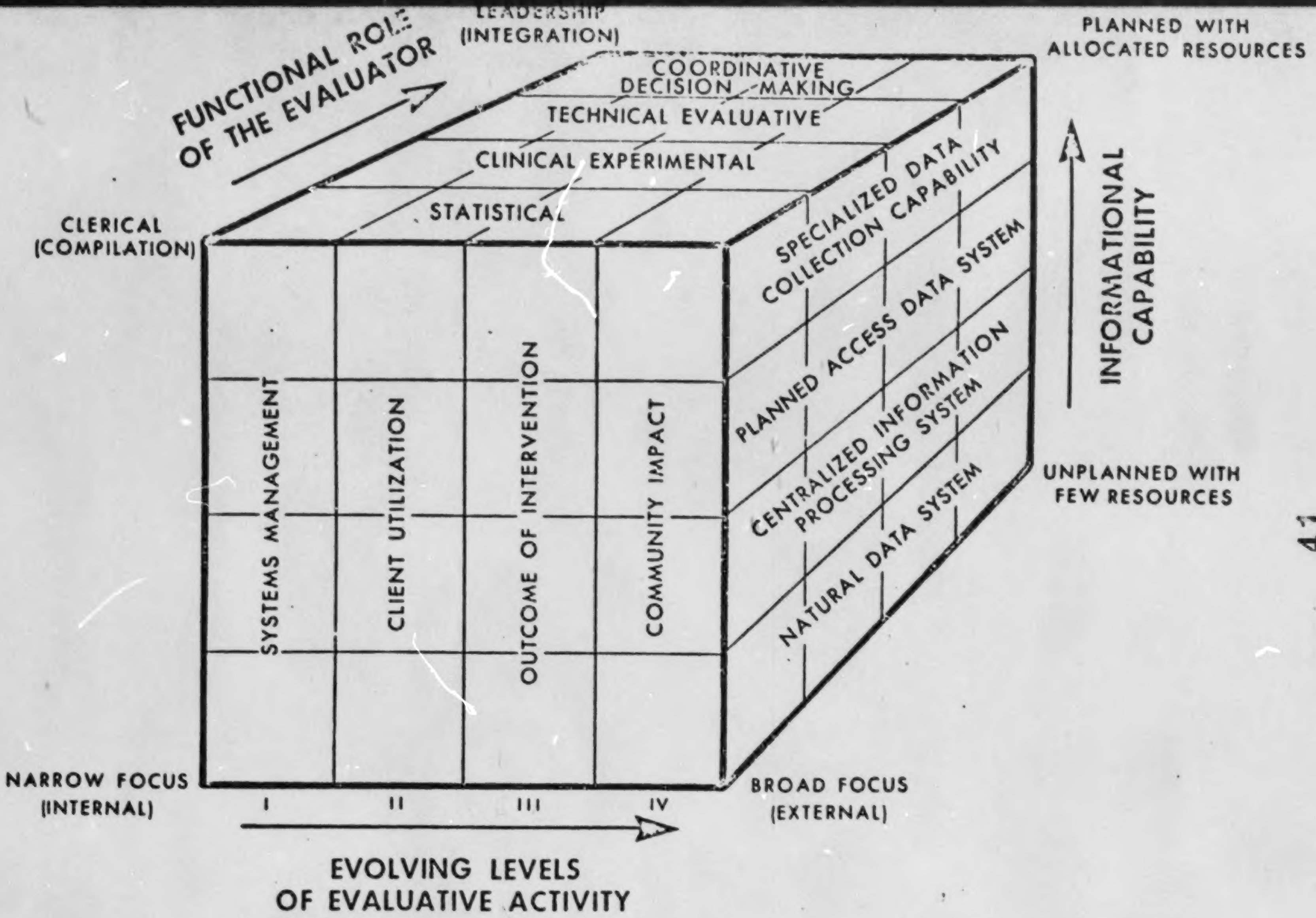

FUNCTIONAL ROLE OF THE EVALUATOR
LEADERSHIP (INTEGRATION)
CLERICAL (COMPILATION)
COORDINATIVE DECISION - MAKING
TECHNICAL EVALUATIVE
CLINICAL EXPERIMENTAL
STATISTICAL
PLANNED WITH ALLOCATED RESOURCES
UNPLANNED WITH FEW RESOURCES
INFORMATIONAL CAPABILITY
SPECIALIZED DATA COLLECTION CAPABILITY
PLANNED ACCESS DATA SYSTEM
CENTRALIZED INFORMATION PROCESSING SYSTEM
NATURAL DATA SYSTEM
SYSTEMS MANAGEMENT
CLIENT UTILIZATION
OUTCOME OF INTERVENTION
COMMUNITY IMPACT
NARROW FOCUS (INTERNAL)
BROAD FOCUS (EXTERNAL)
I
II
III
IV
EVOLVING LEVELS OF EVALUATIVE ACTIVITY

Fig. 1. A three dimensional model depicting key components of community mental health program evaluation capability.

Sour : McIntyre, M., Atkisson, C., Keller, T. (1974) "Components of Program Evaluation Capability in mmunity Mental Health Centers," in Hargreaves, W. et al. Resource Materials for Community Mental Program Evaluation (Vol. I), San Francisco, National Institutes of Mental Health.

a. System's Management Intelligence Gathering: focuses on examination of broad agency goals and objectives and the suitability of the various processes used to achieve them, i.e., budgeting controls, program expansion, data for funding source use, cost-effectiveness analysis, etc..

b. Client Utilization Reviews: defines the system as it interacts with clients, e.g., type, pattern, freqeuncy of client contact; needs assessment, etc..

c. Intervention Outcome Studies: commonly referred to as "effectiveness studies" this stage of evaluation seeks to assess the impact of services provided to clients using the system.

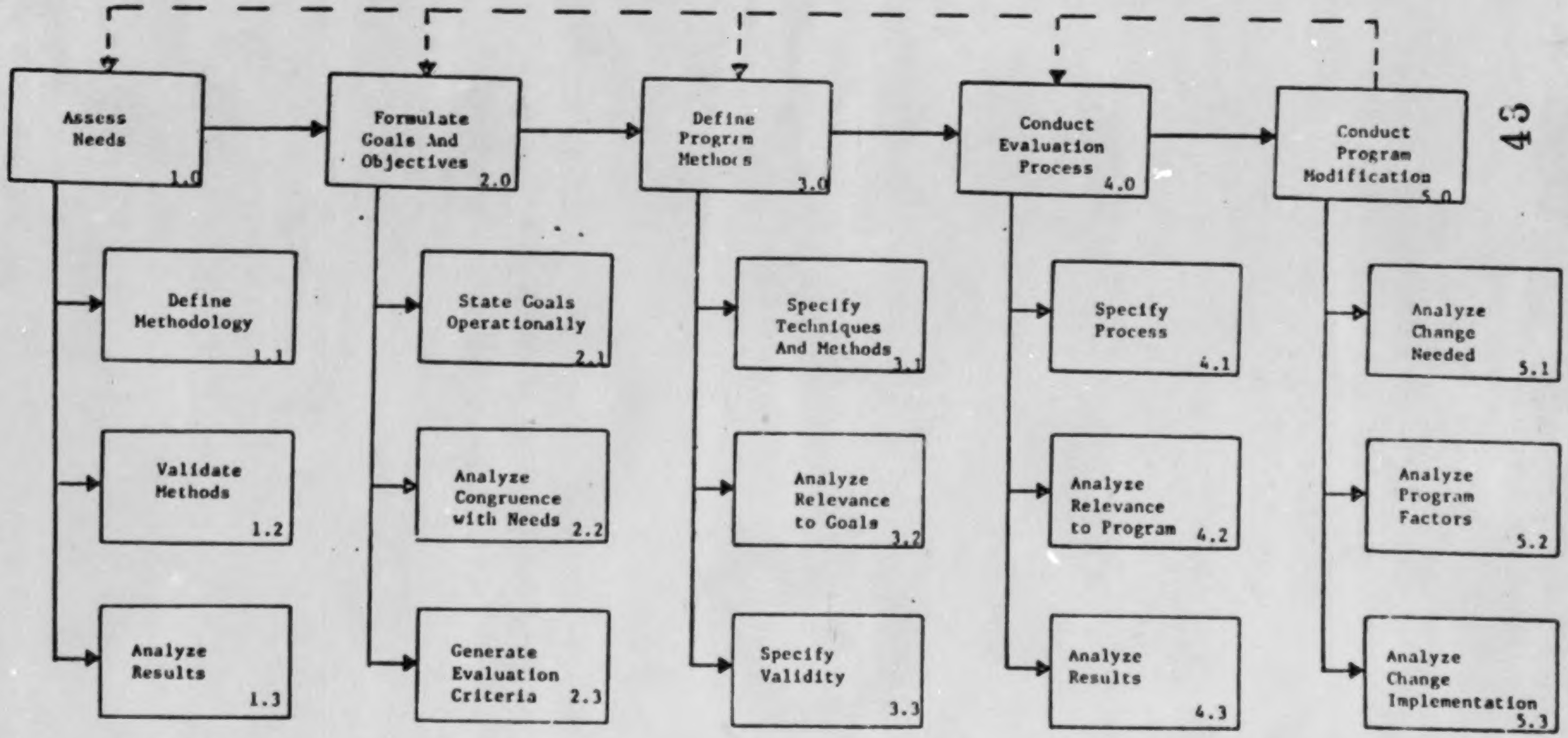
d. Broader Systems Impact Studies: involves the identification of service impact on the broader community and broader social welfare system; relies on use of social indicators and other broad sweeping measures of change.

4. The Program Evaluation Process

Chart III depicts a generic model of the process of social program evaluation. The chart identifies the major task categories of this process as well as the major subtasks which must be performed prior to moving on to the more advanced steps, i.e., need assessment → formulation of program goals and objectives → specification of program methods → data gathering → implimentation of planned program modifications.

The model allows, indeed requires, non-evaluative staff participation throughout each stage of the process wherein the evaluator serves in an expert-consultant role with members of the program

Chart III
A GENERIC MODEL OF THE EVALUATIVE PROCESS[1]


Assess Needs 1.0
Define Methodology 1.1
Validate Methods 1.2
Analyze Results 1.3
Formulate Goals And Objectives 2.0
State Goals Operationally 2.1
Analyze Congruence with Needs 2.2
Generate Evaluation Criteria 2.3
Define Program Methods 3.0
Specify Techniques And Methods 3.1
Analyze Relevance to Goals 3.2
Specify Validity 3.3
Conduct Evaluation Process 4.0
Specify Process 4.1
Analyze Relevance to Program 4.2
Analyze Results 4.3
Conduct Program Modification 5.0
Analyze Change Needed 5.1
Analyze Program Factors 5.2
Analyze Change Implementation 5.3

[1] This model was formulated by Don Gregory, Program Evaluation Analyst

Source: Smith, J.J. (1974). "Doing the Task: A Procedural Framework," Manual of Principles and Methods for Program Evaluation in Hargreaves, W. et al. Resource Materials for Community Mental Health Program Evaluation (Vol. I) San Francisco: National Institutes of Mental Health.

staff. The evaluator assumes responsibility for the validity of the instruments used and the relevance of data gathered but, of equal importance, for the process of evaluation itself.

D. Curricular Design

The following syllabus is recommended for the structuring of a one semester course in program evaluation. The course should be taught by a single faculty member who may, at his or her discretion, utilize the experiences of practicing program evaluators to supplement specific aspects of the course. When available, central course conepts are keyed with relevant references contained in the extensive bibliography which appears at the end of this chapter.

PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL PROGRAM EVALUATION (1 Credit Unit)

I. The Functions of Program Evaluation (2)
  A. Central Purposes
    1. Increased Informational Capability
    2. Continuous Programmatic Assessment
    3. Increased Rational Service Planning
    4. Improved Client Care
    5. Identification of Emerging Service Needs
    6. Increased Administrative Efficiency
  B. Relationship of Evaluation to Program Planning (Freeman and Sherwood, 1970).
  C. Program Evaluation as Instrument for Organizational Change (DHEW, 1972a; 1972b).

II. Dimensions of Program Evaluation (2)
  A. Systems Monitoring (Program Audit) (Estes, 1974; 1975).

B. Client Utilization Studies (Gutek, 1974; Tischler, 1973).

C. Intervention Effectiveness Studies (Pattison, et al., 1969; Robin, 1974; Estes, 1973).

D. Community Impact Studies (Redick, et al., 1971; Rosen, 1970; Montague and Taylor, 1971).

III. Stages of Social Program Evaluation (6)

A. Program Description

B. Assessment of Service Needs (Warheit, 1974)

C. Definition of Program Goals nad Objectives

D. Documentation of Program Activities

E. Data Specification

F. Construction of Evaluative Instruments

G. Data Collection

H. Data Analysis

I. Reporting Findings

J. Program Modification

K. Periodic Reassessments

IV. Role of the Evaluator (1)

A. Assisting in Identification of Emerging Needs

B. Specification of Goals and Objectives

C. Construction of Intervention Plan

D. Preparation of Evaluation Instruments

E. Sharing Evaluation Findings with Programmatic Staff

V. Special Topics in Social Program Evaluation (3)

A. Staff Resistance to Program Evaluation (Nielson, 1975; Del Becq, 1971; Chester and Flanders, 1967).

B. Cost-Benefit Analysis (Sorensen and Phipps, 1972a; 1972b).

C. Automatic Management Information Systems (Smith and Sorensen, 1974; LeBraton, 1969).

D. Evaluating Indirect Services

E. Limitations of Program Evaluation (Rossi, 1972; Walker, 1972; Tripodi, 1974).

F. Client Rights and Confidentiality (Noble, 1971; DHEW, 1972c; Kelman, 1968).

VI. The Politics of Social Program Evaluation: Survival of the Evaluator (1)

A. Federal Politics (Wildansky, 1966; Monsdale, 1972; Buchanan and Wholey, 1972).

B. Agency Politics (Rosenblatt, 1968; Perry, 1959; Glaser and Tayler, 1973).

E. Field Practicum

In addition to the didactic portion of the course, optimally, every student will be provided an opportunity for developing program evaluation skills within the context of a real agency. Unlike research of a more general nature, program evaluation cannot be conducted in isolation from other activities of the agency nor apart from staff members whose work activities are to be directly affected either by the evaluative process or the evaluation results. Indeed, the program evaluator requires the cooperation of agency staff working at all levels of the agency throughout most of the major stages of the evaluative process. Such a concurrent practicum should be provided within the context of the graduate student's current field agency placement when feasible or, alternatively, in a setting arranged by the course instructor when necessary. In the case of employed professionals a suitable practicuum can usually be arranged for the student within his or her own current agency of employment. In general, classroom role playing and similar simulations serve as poor substitutes for the student's own direct exposure to the evaluative process.

Supervision of the practicuum should be arranged with an experienced researcher or evaluator. When such a supervisor is not present in the student's parent agency, a small preceptor group should be arranged by the course instructor for the purpose of individualizing the student's agency-based learning. Because of the complex human and technological problems of an agency-specific nature inherent in program evaluation, course instructors should make every effort to arrange for this type of formal practice experience in every situation where such a practicuum is possible.

COURSE III: AUTOMATED DATA PROCESSING AND INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

The effective program evaluator will acquire skills in automatic data processing. Essentially, this knowledge base requires that the student will gain:

1. a functional understanding of the opportunities and limitations of automatic data processing systems;
2. skills in communicating with a computer so as to be able to program it to undertake the desired data analysis;
3. a working understanding of the peripheral processing equipment associated with the computer, i.e., the keypunch, card reader, card sorter, duplicating machines, output terminals, input terminals, computer storage systems, etc.;
4. skill in the use of a limited number of pre-packaged statistical and analytical programs (e.g. SPSS, Data-Text, Pickle, Osiris,

Cobol, etc.).

Additionally, the program evaluation student will need to learn computer-related techniques which assist administrators in developing more automatic systems of data collection, data processing, and data retrieval at the case level. The development of machine readable optical scanning data forms such as that developed by the author for agency use in Chart IV, for example, can prove of great benefit to most agencies and will eliminate wasteful time currently used for manual data recording and data processing. The adoption of such techniques will increase the efficiency of clerical staff and, more importantly, will make available to administrators, an enormous body of management information which, until such a system is adopted, simply can not be adequately processed by manual operations.

Similarly, the program evaluation student will need to acquire skills in helping administrators develop more sophisticated management information systems (MIS) which will allow them access to programmatic and agency-wide data for use in more rational program planning and implementation. Such systems can be developed on a limited budget by persons who are trained to understand the joint requirements of computerized data systems and the organizational intelligence needs of an agency. Many fine working examples of inexpensive computerized management information systems can already be found in the social welfare literature and several are cited in the appended bibliography (Estes, 1974).

A. Course Structure

The course syllabus which follows was developed specifically for use with graduate and post-graduate level social work students. The

Chart IV

WOMAN

CASE NO. →

CASE								INCOMING TO DISTRICT				DISTRICT								CASE WORKE			
		NUMBER				MONTH		YES? NO?	STATUS		TRANSFER	TRANSFER FROM				BY WORKER TO				CODE NO.			
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	YES	IN		YES	CE	0	0	0	CE	0	0	0	CE	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		IO		NO	ML	1	1	1	ML	1	1	1	ML	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2		2		IR			NE	2	2	2	NE	2	2	2	NE	2		2
3	3	3	3	3	3		3		DT			NW	3	3	3	NW	3	3	3	NW	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4		4					SF	4	4	4	SF	4	4	4	SF	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5		5	NO	Z			WI	5	5	5	WI	5	5	5	WI			5
6	6	6	6	6	6		6					PB	6	6	6	PB	6	6	6	PB			6
7	7	7	7	7	7		7					NA	7	7	7	NA	7	7	7	NA			7
8	8	8	8	8	8		8					SD	8	8	8	SD	8	8	8				8
9	9	9	9	9	9		9						9	9	9		9	9	9				9

CE = CENTRAL
ML = MAIN LINE
NE = NORTHEAST
NW = NORTHWEST
SF = SERVICE FOR OLDER PERSONS
WI = WALK IN CTR
PB = PERSONAL AID BUREAU
NA = NEW AMERICAN
SD = SPECIAL DISTRICT

TARGET GROUPS

= OVER 65
A = OPA ASSISTANCE
T = ADULT OFFENDERS
V = JUVENILE OFFENDER
M = NEW AMERICAN
S = RESETTLEMENT
G = REGULAR CL[illegible]
= ONE PARENT FAMILY

INCOMING TO DISTRICT-STATUS

IN = INCOMING NEW
IO = INCOMING OLD
IR = INCOMING RECURRENT
DT = DISTRICT TRANSFER
Z = NOT INCOMING

STATUS AT MONTH END

CO = CARRIED OVER
CL = CLOSED
TR = TRANSFER

CATEGORY OF SERVICE AT CLOSE

T = TELEPHONE OR CORRESPONDENCE
1 = 1 IN-PERSON INTERVIEW
5 = 2-5 IN-PERSON INTERVIEWS
6 = 6 OR MORE IN-PERSON INTERVIEWS
TCB = THROUGH CONTACT ON BEHALF OF THE FAMILY
Z = STILL OPEN

CARRIED OVER - STATUS

AC = ACTIVE CURRENT
AW = ACTIVE WAITING
IN = INACTIVE
CR = CLOSED AT RECEPTION
CD = CLOSED AT DISTRICT
TCB = THROUGH CONTACT ON BEHALF OF CLIENT
Z = NOT CARRIED OVER

TARGET GROUPS	CONTACTS DURING MONTH								NO. OF MULTI-PERSON INTERVIEWS		NO. OF GROUP MEETINGS PER CLIENT		CONTACTS DURING MONTH						STATUS AT MONTH END	CATEG OF SERV AT CLOSE				CARRIED OVER	
	IN PERSON IN OFFICE				IN PERSON OUT OF OFFICE								TELEPHONE				CORRESP							YES? NO?	STATUS
	WITH FAMILY		WITH COLLATERAL		WITH FAMILY		WITH COLLATERAL						WITH FAMILY		WITH COLLATERAL		WITH FAMILY	WITH COLLAT							
65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		T	0	0	0		
OPA	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	CL	1	1	1	1		
ADT	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		5	2	2	2		
JUV	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		6	3	3	3		
NAM	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4		TCB	4	4	4		
RES	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5			5	5	5		
REG	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	CO	Z	6	6	6		
OPF	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	TR	Z	7	7	7		
	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8			8	8	8		
	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9			9	9	9		

(REV. 1/74) 25M

GRAPHIC CO[illegible]S CORP.

content of this course should be studied closely in conjunction with that proposed by Dr. Chris Mader in Volume II of this report (Schaub, 1975: 158-168) and, when taken together, his curricular proposal and my own should prove to be more than sufficient for adequately developing beginning course content in the course area at the reader's own center or institution.

Most larger universities possess the machine and manpower resources required to offer a course in automated data processing and, as necessary, faculty may be initially drawn from schools or departments outside of the School of Social Work.

1. Course Length

In general, this course should be undertaken concurrent with the student's course in either INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL RESEARCH or PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL PROGRAM EVALUATION. Knowledge of computerized data processing systems is discrete in nature and does not require an extensive prior knowledge of research methodology or program evaluation skills. Although the basic content of the DATA PROCESSING course can be covered in less than a full semester (six - eight weeks), the instructor will want to allow a full term (fifteen weeks) for this course so that students can undertake a supervised group practicum in the use of computerized data systems. Indeed, the practicum is an essential part of the learning as it is here, not in the classroom, that the student learns how to solve many of the technical problems associated with the computer's operation.

2. Cost

Faculty will also want to allocate each student an in-

individualized budget of approximately $100.00 for direct machine-related expenses. The computer is an expensive machine to operate and the cost of the practicum will need to be reflected in the student's tuition or course fee.

B. Course Syllabus: (1 Credit)

I The Management of Administrative Information (1)

II Approaches to Data Management (2)

- A. Manual Systems
    - 1. McBee Cards
    - 2. Records and Progress Notes
    - 3. Periodic Service Tallies
- B. Automatic Systems
    - 1. Computer Hardware
        - a. The "Computer"
        - b. Peripheral Processing Equipment (Keypunch, Optical Scanning, etc.).
    - 2. Computer Softward
        - a. Data Analytical Packages (E.g. SPSS, DATATEXT, etc.).

III Interfacing with the Computer (6)

- A. Conversion of Manual to Automatic Systems
- B. Laboratory/Practicum, i.e., learning to communicate with a computer.

IV Issues in Automatic Data Processing (3)

- A. Staff Resistances
- B. Client Privacy

C. Cost

D. Utility

V Data Processing Techniques and Program Change: The Role of the Social Work Professional (1)

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY BY CONTENT AREA ON SOCIAL PROGRAM EVALUATION

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June, 1975

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Seminar on Education
for
Management of Social Services

January 5, 1975

Major Issues in Educational Programs on Management

Summary of the Problems and Issues in the Planning, Developing and Evaluating and Interdisciplinary Educational Program submitted by seminar participants.

This is a summary of the responses received prior to the seminar from nine participants.

Values
(five responses)

I. Criteria are needed for selection of theories of management which cohere with the philosophical & ethical bases of Social Work.

II. There is a seeming neutrality in management approaches. The professional issues continue to surface, however, and these need to be taken into consideration and programmed for, if interdisciplinary outcomes are to be achieved.

III. Professional cultism of disciplines and social work. Each has its own values and there may be major differences that are at times antagonistic.

IV. Need to identify whether there are basic differences in values and explore how knowledge and theory, in this regard, may be complimentary, rather than different.

V. Measure of effectiveness of educational program must include insuring a primary concern for the human being who is the reason for the service agency to exist.

VI. How can the scientific aspects of management be reconciled or merged with the value system of the social work profession?

VII. Despite the seeming neutrality in management approaches, professional issues continue to surface and must be considered and dealt with to insure a real interdisciplinary outcome.

Field Experiences
(three responses)

I. Providing appropriate field experiences, meaningful in learning the management of social services.

II. The selection of placements (practicum) and the deployment of the students.

III. Appropriate field experiences in management at the masters level. Tasks and functions for the students to perform and type of supervision for students.

Curriculum Planning and Development
(three responses)

I. Mix of theory and content in an interdisciplinary curriculum? Areas of essential content in each discipline? Elements of the interdisciplinary curriculum? The total?

II. What are the criteria for interfacing an existing schools' curriculum, such as a Policy Planning and Administration tract, with a related university department offering a similar masters?

III. What are the curriculum considerations proven effective for Masters degree in P.P.A.?

IV. What elements of management are common to all management education and which presuppose a knowledge of and commitment to social work values and practice?

V. The most effective sequencing of courses in management to enhance learning.

VI. Many schools of Social Work do have emphasis in the area of community planning and development. How are such distinguished from the planning subsumed within administration? What courses or content provides an education for these tasks?

Organizing Management Courses
(four responses)

I. What is an appropriate balance between utilizing faculty instructors who are practitioners and those who are academicians?

II. Division of labor between business management faculty and social work faculty - who presents basic content, theory and research based material? Who applies content to social service settings?

III. How should faculty from the two disciplines be deployed?

IV. Develop current bibliography on teaching management theory and skill.

V. How can Schools of Social Work allocate manpower and resources to provide competent insturction in management and effective integration of the content?

VI. What are the most effective classroom instructional experiences and modalities in management education?

Notes on Seminar January 10, 1975 - A.M.

Recommendations on Curriculum for Educational Programs on Management

The session began with presentation by the four work groups on their achievements. (See attached sheets). The discussion of these presentations and of the sessions all week broke into four areas: articulation between schools of social work and schools of business, the structure of an administration curriculum, content and gaps in content, and the teaching of this content.

Articulation: If indeed schools of social work and schools of business are going to join together to create curricula in administration, then a great deal of work must be done continually on articulation. It was pointed out that joining together will be more and more fostered as agencies in the public sector are interested in graduates with joint MBA and MSW degrees. This can be facilitated in several ways. One approach would be a capstone seminar taught jointly by business and social work. At one school, the social work faculty sat in on the business courses with the students so they could better help the students to make connections between the professions. It was noted that this is expensive education. One suggestion was getting a research grant to research the process and problems of articulation. (Franklin, Lewis, Saunders)

Structure: There was question as to whether or not the administrator of a social work agency needs to have skills in direct service (i.e, casework, groupwork, etc.) There seemed to be a general agreement that anyone coming into an MSW program in administrations would be coming out of a direct service background and could spend both years of the MSW program on administration. In other words, that background is important but all of the placement time at the masters level should be focused on administration. (Garber, Godwin, Lewis)

Content and Gaps: The continuing concern for the social work values being stressed in education for social work administrators was discussed by the participants. As one participant put it, there should be passion as well as intellect in the education of these people. There is also a need for these social work administrators to have skills in as well as knowledge of administration. It was brought up that much of the content which had been presented at the seminar was inventions which people in administration have come up with and these will quickly fade to be replaced with more recent inventions. What is needed is a focus on discoveries that will last. It was pointed out, however, that both are needed as inventions push one forward while discoveries take much more time. It was also noted that what social work students need from the business courses are practice principles as we have in social work. (Garber, Lewis, Yankey)

Two gaps in content were suggested. One is that the administrator needs to know how the law works and what the legal considerations are in his job. Second, the area of communication which was touched upon but is in fact a major area for the administrator (Griffin).

Teaching: In terms of teaching, it was stressed that with adult learners, there should be: 1. high use of participation, 2. brief presentations followed immediately by exercises in application, 3. materials should be highly organized, and 4. informal exchange should be facilitated. (Griffin, Lewis)

Another point was that the social work related administration materials being created across the country needed to be pulled together and dispersed, perhaps through SRS. Last, it was suggested that doctoral programs need to develop people who will do research in social work administration. (Griffin, Lewis)

DISCUSSION DRAFT
Laundry List of Identified Management Practices

1. Budgeting - Financial Control - Grantsmanship - Planning - Budgeting-control. Budget and Financial Accountability
2. Collective Bargaining - Industrial Relations
3. Organizational Behavior = Informal Behavior.
4. Political Process. Budgets and the Legislative process.
5. Public Finance = Taxation.
6. Managing the Knowledge Worker (Professional) - Management of Human Resources.
7. Management Information Systems - Computer Analysis
8. The External Environment (Understanding, assessment and evaluation of our environment; ie, economic, political)
9. Management Policies and Practices.
10. Computer systems (Information systems).
11. Social agency public relations (ie, dealing with various publics, press relations, community relations, legislative relations, community resources, fund raising).
12. Management philosophy.
13. Program planned budgeting.
14. Management by objectives.
15. Data processing techniques in social work research.
16. Applying management planning techniques to social service organizations.
17. Leadership.
18. Contract administration.
19. Motivation in social service organizations (human factors in agency management, individual behavior and motivation)
20. Communications.
21. Program evaluations.
22. Managing change (initiating change in the welfare systems).
23. Management of Time - effective executive.

24. Management and the governing body - policy makers.

25. Problem solving and decision making in social agencies.

26. Personnel policy, practices and procedures (ie, grievance procedures, performance appraisal).

27. PERT - Work planning.

28. The process of planning and control.

Group I
Members: M. Bogner, D. Estes (School of Soc. Work), S. Good, J. Griffin, H. Lewis, H. Waters, B. Zucker (Wharton)

The group dispersed with continuing education because all of the content areas could be utilized depending on the needs of the group being served.

BSW
From social work: ethical behavior (in ambiguous situations), appreciation of differences, disciplined use of style and skill in communications. From business: decision theory, problem solving, case method, organizational behavior, computer systems, quantitative methods

MSW
Concentration in Management and Administration
I. Orienting
Organizational behavior, computer systems, quantitative methods
II. Care for Management
a. Financing resource management, budgeting, financial control, grantsmanship, planning-budgeting - control, budget and financial accountability; public finance, taxation; PPBS; applying management planning techniques to social service organizations; contract administration; program evaluation; human accountability
b. Personnel resource management, collective bargaining, industrial relations; managing the professional; motivation; personnel policy, practices and procedures.
c. Communication skills, understanding, assessing and evaluating the agency environment; public relations, community relations, legislative relations; leadership; communications; management and the board of directors.
d. Program accountability, management information systems; MBO; program evaluation; problem solving and decision making; PERT; process of planning and control.
e. Management policies, practices and objectives; management policies and practices, management philosophy, managing change, managing time.
f. Societal processes, political processes, budgets and the legislative process; the external environment; interorganizational operation.

DSW
Innovations in social service delivery, theories and construction of theories in social administration, advanced practice in social administrations.

Group II
Members: R. Garber, M. Kelly, E. Leonard, H. Levin (School of Social Work), J. Murphy, C. Parks (Wharton)

Assumptions:
1. There will be a continuing cost crunch and social and rehabilitation service agencies will be forced with mandated accountability.
2. The demand for social and rehabilitation services is increasing and will continue to increase. Clients are demanding more and more services and a higher quality of service
3. The demand for new administrators is increasing and is expected to continue to increase. This demand will be met in two ways:
   a. Current practitioners will experience upward mobility within their agencies. Thus, the need for continuing education in management and supervision training.
   b. The increased concentration for MSW-DSW students in administration including joint degrees.
4. There will be a deflation of the MSW degree and the "credentials push" will increase the number of students seeking admission to DSW programs or other "life-long learning" educational experiences. In other words, the MSW will not be the terminal educational experience.

Questions:
1. The question of sources of funding for continued education.
2. Should schools of social work at the masters level be producing specialists or generalists?
3. Should the managers of the future be someone trained in a specialized area of social work with a concentration in administration?

Content and Curricula
A. All items #1-28 have potential as a short course, seminar, institute, etc. - using "canned" programs - tailor-making special programs to meet specific needs - future potential for contract arrangement between universities and social agencies.
B.1. The flexibility of the BS curriculum is such that the student has numerous opportunities to take courses in Business, Public Administration etc. However, faculty counseling, direction and moral evasion is a prerequisite.
   2. A course in organizational behavior is perceived to be necessary at all levels, i.e., BSW, MSW and DSW. The purpose of this course is to raise the consciousness of the individual as to what it means to work in the organization.
C. The MSW programs are generally such that they do not allow for joint degrees, programs, concentrations. The emphasis should, therefore, be at the DSW level. Faculty counseling and collegiality is necessary for success of these ventures.

MSW	DSW
	4. Political Process Budgets Legislative Process - allocation of funds
	5. Public Finance Taxation from Revenue Sources as opposed to the expenditure side
	6a. Managing the Professional Needs Aspirations Motivation of
	6b. Management of Human Resources recruitment, selection, placement orientation, training & development performance appraisal compensation, benefits union-management relations manpower planning communication (inter-face internally and externally)
	7. M.I.S. - Computer Analysis for record keeping as a planning tool for decision-making
	8. The external environment economic political legislative knowledge, expanding technology social values values of people
9. Management policies and practices	
12. Management Philosophy micro-level	12. Management Philosophy incorporated with #8
	21. Program Evaluation
	22. Management of change initiating change reacting to change
	28. The planning process & control

Where do we go from here?

1. Overcome institutional barriers to joint programs
2. Use the student as a "test" and let's get on with it (management concentrations) and
3. There will be little institutional cost, since we can use existing courses with the exception of keystone and capstone seminars (jointly taught).
4. Any cooperative arrangement, curriculum changes, etc. must not lose sight of the needs of society.

Group III

Members: B. McCurdy (Advisory committee), C. O'Reilly, C. Sanders, B. Schaub (School of Social Work, D. Whyte (Student), J. Yankey

Assumptions:

1. Building curricula for specialists in social work administration
2. The figures of intensity for continuing education are normative figures - the specific figures would depend on the needs of the specific group being served.
3. Doctoral figures are for a generic base curriculum.

1=informed consumer
2=informal interface
3=know it

MSW

	Intensity	Credit
2. collective bargaining	1	.5
3. organization behavior	3	3
4. political processes	2	3
7. MIS	2	.5
8. external environment	2-3	3
9. management policies		3
10. computer systems	1	.5
11a. Public relations	2	
b. CO		4
12. Management philosophy		
13. PPB	2	3
14. MBO	2	3
15. Data processing research	1	.5
17-		
19. Leadership & motivation	2	2
18. Contract administration	1	.5
20. Communication	3	1
21. Program evaluation	2	1
22. Managing change	3	1
23. Managing time	1	.3
24. Managing & policy making bodies	2	1
25. Prob. solving - decision making	3	
26. Personnel policy	1	2
27. PERT	1	.5
28. Planning and Control	3	2
		29.6 cr h.

over 4 linkages

Linkages

		intensity	credit
1.	Budget	1	
5.	Pub. Fin.	1-2	
13.	PPB		3
14.	MBO	2	
21.	Prog. Eval	2	1
22.		3	1
27.	PERT	1	.5
			5.5

Linkages

		intensity	credit
3.	Org. Beh	3	3
28.	Plan & Cont	3	2
			5.0
7.	MIS	2	.5
12.	Manag. Phil		
17.	Leadership		
19.	& motiv.	2	2
20.	Commun.	3	1
			3.5 + ?
10.	Comp. Sys.	1	.5
15.	Data Proc.		
	& Res.	1	.5
			1.0

1=informed
2=interface
3=skill-know it

		DSW		CONT. ED.	
Budgeting	1	3		2-3	
Collective	2	2-3		3	
bargaining	3	3+		3 spec	
organization	4	3		3	
behavior	5	2		2-3	
policies	6				
	7	3		2-3	
	8	3		3	
	9				
	10	2		2	
	11	a2	b3	a2	b3
	12				
	13	3		2-3	
	14	3		2-3	
	15	2-3		2	
	16				
	17 & 19	3		3	
	18	2-3		3	
	19				
	20	3		3	
	21	3		2-3	
	22	3		3	
	23	1		1	
	24	3		3	
	25	3		3	
	26	2-3		2-3	
	27	2		2-3	
	28	3		3	

Group IV

Members: R. Franklin, Gunter Geiss, P. Godwin (Advisory Committee), H. Harlow, C. Mader (Wharton), M. Patterson (Student), George Plutchok

Content is grouped into nine areas:

I. Financial Elements - Budgeting, financial control, grantsmanship, planning, budgeting, control, budget and financial accountability, fiscal and program budgeting, PPBS, Public finance, taxation.

II. Personnel Management - collective bargaining, industrial relations, contract administration

III. Man-power development - staff development, supervision

IV. Organization theory and behavior - informal and formal organizations, managing the professions, management of human resources, leadership, motivation, communications, initiating managing change, management of conflict, group processes.

V. Planning, control and evaluation process, MBO, PPBS, Program evaluation, managment of time, problem solving and decision making, PERT, policy making.

VI. Quantitative techniques, systems models and optimization, decision theory, cost effectiveness, cost benefit, probability and statistical inference, resource allocations, linear programming techniques, quality control

VII. Computer technology, principles of computing, management information systems, computer analysis, data processing techniques, inference and prediction.

VIII. The External Environment, social agency public relations, public finance, taxation, management and the board of directors, consumer committees, state and federal departments.

IX. Management principles and practices, philosophy, policy.

Content and Levels of Education:

BSW: IV-1, VIII-2
MSW: I-3, II-3, III-1, IV-1, V-1, VI-2, VII-2, VIII-2, IX-3.
DSW: I-1, II-2, III-2, IV-1, V-1, VI-1, VII-1, VIII-1, IX-1
CE: All categories and with the level depending on the need.

-Degrees of importance
1 - most important
3 - least important

Seminar for National Project
on
Education for Management of Social Service Programs

January 5, 1975

Barriers to setting up Interdisciplinary Educational Programs for Social Service Administration

The following barriers were identified prior to the meeting by nine of the participants.

I. The macropolitics of interdisciplines are so complex as to lead to territorial protection rather than program outcomes.

II. Credentialism associated with meritocracy.

III. Incremental budgeting, based on line definition which will entitle only certain professional to compensation.

IV. Professional cultism and turf protection

V. Preceived status differential between social work and other disciplines which put social work educators at disadvantage.

VI. Competition for scarce financial resources and for student enrollment in ones own school.

VII. Business and Social Work faculty and students don't understand one anothers terminology.

VIII. Those in the disciplines of management science do not see reciprocal value in interdisciplinary teaching together with social work.

IX. Business strategies appropriate to the business environment are not like that of social work: For example, public service versus corporate enterprise, Political arena versus non-political, Profit versus non-profit.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA
MANAGEMENT SEMINAR 1/5/75

MANAGEMENT IN THE NON-PROFIT SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANIZATION

Harold Lewis

The late fifties and early sixties in social service organizations were bullish years for innovators. The mid-sixties to the end of the decade saw "problem solvers" come into their own. Now, as resources contract and demand expands, the call is out for managers. Is it only by chance that this cycle, often repeated in social welfare history, appears to coincide with periods of major social unrest, liberalization and reaction? Coincidence or not, the fact is that managers now enter center stage, as economic distress and policitcal reaction threaten social services in all fields. In the eyes of professionals who must deliver the service, talk of budget cuts, personnel freezes, program retrenchment, and organizational rigidity linked to demands for accountability, is managerial talk. Managers in such trying circumstances find themselves speaking of efficiency when the professional in daily practice speaks of insufficiency. Managers had best be strong and wise people, for theirs is an unenviable lot.

It is true that the need for intelligent and concerned management of non-profit social service organizations has never been greater. There are more of these organizations, they are involved in increasingly complex and costly operations, they now influence the lives and livelihoods or millions. But greater need, as we in welfare work know so well, is not necessarily a condition for attracting the better or the greater resource. Administrators have always been there, minding the store in social services agencies. But apparently in the eyes of managers who can judge, these administrators are not very good managers. Moreover, among social service administrators there are many who accept this evaluation, and in keeping with the culture of the profession, readily volunteer their own feelings of inadequacy. The upsurge in management courses and concentrations in Schools of Social Work, the experiments in joint programs with Schools of Business Administration and Public Administration, and workshops such as this, all testify to a degree of agreement between the outside evaluation and those evaluated. For the sake of the dialogue that this agreement initiates, I will assume these judgments are correct. On the additional assumption that it is the social work managers who seek to learn more about management from the business school managers, and not the other way around, I will also approach my assignment from the perspective of a client seeking the service of managerial specialists.

Initially, it is important that we clarify our situation: what is it we want help with, and what factors in our circumstances condition the use we can make of help that may be provided. We come from a culture very different from that of the business manager.[1] As you know, we operate non-profit organizations and can, with little effort, spend for very good purposes more than we have, thereby incurring a deficit, but no loss in profit.

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[1] I am indebted to Albert O. Hirschman, Exit, Voice and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations and States. (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1970) for a number of analogs used in this paper.

When our consumers no longer need our services, an optimistic interpretation is that success has been achieved: this is hardly the case in business when customers stop buying a firm's product. In the social service organization concern for fairness often takes precedence over efficiency. The service ethic commends unequal advantage as justified only if it raises the expectations of the least advantaged. This requires that equals be treated equally, and unequals unequally. Since the most disadvantaged are also more likely to experience difficulty in making timely and appropriate use of opportunitieis, special and costly effort may be required to reach out ot them. This, despite the fact that other claimants who do not need this special effort are sufficient in number to totally absorb available resources. What business would spend resources to attract the most difficult to serve and usually most deprived customer, when there are more than enough cooperative and affluent customers prepared to buy all it has to sell? We understand that in the business concern, when competition does not bring efficiency, adversity will. In social service organizations rarely is competition a factor compelling efficiency and adversity is not likely to be the result of a client taking his business elsewhere. In fact, given our lack of resources, inefficiency may be a vital necessity for organizational survival. In one city I know quite well, if the society to protect children from neglect and abuse systematically and efficiently reached out and informed the total community of its charge and the services it was expected to provide, not only would it be overwhelmed with needy cases it could not begin to serve, but its overload would swamp the courts, public assistance agencies, children's institutions, and so on. In our field, where need--our definition of demand--far exceeds allocated resources, a certain amount of selected inefficiency would appear essential for survival. For these and other reasons, I suggest we come from organizational cultures that differ in important respects from the business firm and, until we fully appreciate the significance of these differences, it may be difficult for each of us to play his appropriate role in this service situation.

I must add a sense of reality to our request for help. We realize that the loud clamor for our services that will increase with rising unemployment and inflation is not evidence of a healthy demand. Success measured in terms of basic human needs met and social problems overcome is increasingly unlikely in these difficult times. We have more than once experienced times when our clients were increasing in number and our means for meeting their needs declining. Probably the only social worker manager ever to reach the pinnacle of power in our country, Harry Hopkins, earned the respect of the President, Congress, and political pundits throughout our land, and later, the world, because he remained true to the humane values of his profession even as he carried out herculean managerial tasks under very trying conditions. We on the firing line know that our consumers are restless. They take seriously the promise of justice and fairness. They will not accept an efficient operation that leaves their needs unattended. We may be devoted to our tasks, but we are also human. Your help, to be useful, should provide us with supplements to our courage and convictions, to prepare us to suffer the anger and distrust that will be heaped on our heads, not for our failings, though they be many, but for the failings of our profit-oriented political and economic institutions.

An important characteristic of social service organizations is the monopoly they enjoy over the type of resource they offer their clientele. Usually, as noted earlier, there are not competitive services that offer our consumer options, should they find our performance unsatisfactory. Moreover, since the cost of the service is rarely carried by consumer payments, the threat of non-payment or withdrawal by individual recipients may be mildly irritating, but rarely fatal. Unlike the private monopoly that public policies would regulate to protect the consumer from exploitation and profiteering, the non-profit social service organization can hardly be accused of exercising these negative options in order to maximize its own gain. Necessarily, the critic of these organizations must look elsewhere to find fault, and this leads directly to the traditional changes that have always hounded the managers of social service programs: laxity, antiquated methods, ineffective and inefficient operations. What ill serves the consumer they assume must be done by mismanagement since other motives seem to be absent. How the agency offers service, the service offered and the lack of responsiveness of the program to changing conditions are the key targets when doubts about management occur.

Another characteristic of social service organizations is the use of unit service cost in the absence of profit as a measure of efficiency. When goals are displaced as functions, this also serves as one measure of success. Those who recall the Ormsby-Hill Family Agency Cost Studies and their follow-ups will remember how cost measures were used in these ways. Thus, while the non-profit organization and the profit organization want to maximize client-consumer satisfaction and minimize client-consumer ill will, the former would achieve this purpose at the minimum cost per unit service, while the latter seeks to achieve this purpose without threatening maximum profits. The point noted earlier, that in the social service organization one can incur deficits without a loss of profit, does suggest the role of service costs as a possible equivalent to the firm's profit as an indicator of managerial achievement. Before examining the cost per unit of service function and the client satisfaction function as they relate to one another in setting managerial goals, a comment on the latter function is in order.

Client satisfaction in the non-profit social service agency is in part dependent on the quality of service provided and in part on the quality of the processes and procedures through which the service is provided. Since so much of the service entails intimate human contact between the worker and client, these two elements--what is being provided and how it is being provided--are not readily separable. For close helping relationships to successfully serve as vehicles for service, it is crucial that mutual trust infuse contacts. Trust, in turn, is evident in the ability, willingness and opportunity to share of one's self with another. In circumstances where one seeks social service help, more often than not the client chooses an agency, not the particular worker assigned to his or her case. (In fact, in most circumstances, the client has the choice of only one agency.) For this reason, trusting the agency is a major requisite for instilling trust in the worker-client relationship. Good management should therefore communicate in the organizational work of the agency those elements that promote trust. Developing trust as an ingredient of practice must have a high priority in any procedure instituted to assure accountability.

Returning now to the unit cost and satisfaction functions, it is apparent that good management would seek an appropriate mix of both, and would normally find the ideal blend at any one time, somewhere between the minimum of the former and the maximum of the latter. A good manager would be expected to provide guidance in approaching this ideal blend even if it may not be realized, or have only momentary value. Faulty management would focus on one to the exclusion of the other. What we need help with, as social service managers, is the body of established principles of practice that one must follow to approach this blend.

One additional observation is in order. Costs per unit in the condition of excessive demand and fixed income that typically confront the social service organization can be altered by changing worker productivity, operational efficiency, quality of service and characteristics of clients. The options to increase price and extend market are not usually available. Managers, then, do in fact face limited internal choices in seeking to lower unit costs without currently courting client ill-will. They can hire less costly staff, require more productivity of staff, limit waste, give less to each client, choose only the clients who need less. If none of the above work, the manager can exercise control of intake-closing and opening admissions for selected periods in order to manage with available resources, but this would not necessarily control unit costs.

A third characteristic of social service organizations we need to consider is the requirement that the organization respect the privacy of the client, and that this be distinguished from its opposite, anonymity. In order to develop trust, opportunity must be provided to demonstrate its presence. Both the client and worker must have something of their own that they are free to share with the other. Where there is no privacy, there can be no free choice to share, and trust is hardly likely to infuse the relationship. Privacy, therefore, requires sufficient personal contact to permit recognition of differences and ideosyncratic attributes. It requires a feeling and knowing human interface between client and agency. In the professional jargon, this is known as individualizing each client-system. Anonymity successfully masks client differences and deliberately seeks to assure uniform treatment. It would minimize worker judgments. Failure to appreciate the difference between privacy and anonymity and the destructive results that can follow when one is confused with the other has been amply demonstrated in the New York City experience with the separation of income maintenance and service in the Department of Public Assistance. The clientele of this agency now have somewhat less trust in this agency's program than in the Nixon Presidency.

I have avoided discussion of two popular terms in the language of managers, effect and effectiveness, to guard against confusing their meaning with issues of efficiency and accountability. Effectiveness measures are based on criterion variables intended to judge achievement of goals associated with terminal values. Effect, on the hand, is measured in relation to criteria derived from purposes associated with instrumental values. Whereas the former helps us in our judgment of a program's success, the latter provides the basis for judging the achievements of a practice. Those who make their managerial decisions based solely on effect measures risk the tyranny of small decisions. On the other hand, those who make their managerial decisions based solely on effectiveness measures risk remaining in doubt as to what, in fact, did or did not help. An appropriate mix of both types of outcome measures would provide a basis for choices to be informed by functional and goal achievements. For example, at the functional level it would be important in a neglect of child situation to determine if the help given did provide the supervision that was previously absent. This is not an unusual measure effect. On the other hand, it would be important to know that as a result of such improved supervision, the child did in fact attend school regularly, experience less interruption to expected routines because of illness, incarceration, and so on. With the latter measure we would know if the social prupose of the program was being achieved. To reiterate, effect tells us the relevance of our practice and effectiveness the relevance of our program. Having clarified some meanings, established parameters that condition the culture of our organizatios, and having suggested the crucial measures of achievement that promise program success, it is possible to address specific issues of efficiency and accountability with which I expect those of us who manage non-profit social service organizations could benefit most from your assistance.

Efficiency

Consider the following, not uncommon, experience in social service agency personnel management. The agency asserts its conviction that it ought to upgrade the educational preparation of its staff to improve the quality and efficiency of its services. In addition to an in-service training program, it proposes to underwrite by released time or scholarship the costs of eligible employees attending a graduate program offering advanced education in an area of competence useful to the agency. After careful screening it selects the best candidates available on its staff, they attend the program, return after graduation for an obligated period, and leave the agency.

The worker who has benefited from the education has increased his other economic options. With a new marketable competence comes a wider range of choices, and greater maneuverability in the job market. Thus, the agency locates its best talent, helps this talent achieve and having achieved, this talent seeks out the best agency which may not be the one that invested in the worker. In a sense, this enlightened personnel practice, if successful, will turn out all the shining lights the agency has originally recruited to help assure its future. But--and here the more interesting aspect of the process is evident--the agency may still want to pursue this policy. It can be rationalized as preparing personnel for the profession, thus assuring the presence of competent practitioners in other programs to which this agency often must turn for help with its clients. Theoretically, if all agencies followed the same route, the general level of practice would improve, and the market would ultimately distribute appropriately the various talents needed. There may, however, be another reason for maintaining this policy.

Supposing the agency, as much as the talented worker, recognizes the low level of its practice, but is faced with a locked-in senior staff with little likelihood of turnover in their positions. Let us assume, as is frequently true, the agency has a relative monopoly on employment opportunities for a particular service skill. In these circumstances staff at the lower level in the agency program have no place to go, in the agency or elsewhere. A certain discontent is inevitable, and the politics of organizational practice can in time be brutal. The more talented, frustrated employees may use their ability to highlight for client and community alike the limitations of the quality of service and may organize the staff to "Fanshen"--as the Chinese call it. Faced with this possibility, the organizations's leadership can opt for education as an effective tool to defuse the powder-keg, decapitating the potential leadership through a process that provides the more able with the options to go elsewhere.

This hypothetical case need not fit a particular situation in order that it serve our purposes. What it is meant to highlight is the need to examine both the political and economic factors that jointly influence managerial decisions. I believe failure to do so may be the major inefficiency in social service organizations. Talk of technology, of rational decision mechanisms based on up-to-date information retrieval, of sound management of fiscal resources, of control and planning systems, of quality control, organizational statesmanship, of personnel administration, of goal-directed practice--these make for interacting and useful dialogues, but with the best of these in business, one encounters the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Lockheed, the Pan Am syndrome. In social service organizations with access to the more sophisticated technological hard and software--such as Catholic Social Services, Public Welfare departments, etc.--the same syndrome is evident. Obviously, we need help in formulating principles of managerial practice to guide us in making appropriate apolitical and economic judgments. Having such principles, we can at least hope to engage in a principled practice, putting the best of available technologies on call for use in achieving our goals and purposes.

Accountability

The issue most in need of attention in relation to accountability is possibly the key question: accountability to whom? The earlier duscussion of the culture of the non-profit social service organization considered the lack of economic options open to the clients of these organizations. Lacking the choice to go elsewhere, these consumers are a natural cohort for generating a political pressure group with considerable sustaining energies. As one wise observer of this phenomen has noted, social service managers and staff like clients in trouble, but not when they make trouble about their trouble.

But there is accountability to the funding source, accountability to the community, accountability to the profession, accountability to one's superior and last, but not least, accountability to one's self. Which of all these accountabilities deserve the highest priority? Mechanisms and techniques for assuring accountability will differ in accordance with the interests of those for whom the results are intended. Most managers may find this question academic. Obviously, those groups who can exercise the major influence will demand and get the major attention. If the funding source threatens to cut off payment, their interest will be attended to and soon. Now, as one carefully reviews the amount of clout likely to be available to the different populations to whom one can be accountable, the weakest group may well be the least organized. Thus, a unionized staff, or an organized profession, can make a more telling demand than individual personnel in isolation. A board in agreement, a single or major funding source, or collaborating funding sources, can speak in a more commanding voice when united than when disagreements produce only dissonance and no clear message. Weakest of all is the unorganized client whose problems bring him to the agency, and whose personal inability to manage, seriously limits his energies and other resources which would be needed to command the accountability that may be his due. Thus, I would expect that the major help we need with problems of accountability are guiding principles that serve to inform our use of technologies in a manner that would assist us in assuring a just and fair, not merely a convenient, response to requests for accountability. This may require, at times, that we assist in organizing our future trouble makers.

In the short run, it would seem unlikely that managers will promote a source of power that could be used to restrict their choices. In the long run, failure to do so may not only restrict, but eliminate choice entirely.

The Practice Science of Management

I happen to agree with those management experts who recognize a distinction between a theoretical and practice science. While we need the former to tell us where to look and what to look for, the latter provides us with the how. I have found that practice science, because of the peculiar epistemology of professions, is formulated in terms of principles and rules, not laws. And since practice sciences intend consequences, they are never value free. My presentation was intended to emphasize the linkage of knowledge and value in professional managerial practice. It can hardly be considered more than suggestive, but I believe the topic we are addressing can hardly be considered well, if this linkage is ignored at any point in our discussion.

Summary

I have noted the following areas in which I believe your help would serve both our immediate and long-term concerns. We need to know principles of management which:

--will communicate in the organizational work of the agency those elements that promote trust and concurrently respect privacy;

--would help us approach an appropriate mix of unit-cost and client satisfaction functions;

--can provide us with a basis for choosing an appropriate mix of effect and effectiveness measures to inform our managerial decisions;

--will guide us in making appropriate political and economic judgments affecting organizational efficiency; and

--will inform our use of technologies in a manner that would assist us in assuring a just and fair, not merely a convenient, response to requests for accountability.

University of Pennsylvania
Management Seminar
January 5, 1975

Herman Levin, D.S.W.
School of Social Work
University of Pennsylvania

PROFESSIONAL-BUREAUCRATIC CONFLICT IN SOCIAL AGENCIES

A FURTHER CONSIDERATION

This paper explores the manpower implications of a festoring disenchantment of agency personnel with the social welfare establishment. The call for social workers to become client and social welfare advocates or mediators and the resurgence of interest in clinical and private practice all attest to a concern of many social workers with their social agency relationships -- to their inability to find professional fulfillment within organizational constraints.[1] A seemingly irreconcilable conflict between professional and organizational models of operation was indicated by Scott Briar in an introduction to a set of papers dealing with central issues of social work practice:

> There is no doubt that innovation and experimentation ...have been inhibited by the constraints emanating from the bureaucratic organizations within which virtually all casework (substitute "social work") has been practiced throughout its history. The organizational requirements of social agencies generate pressures to substitute routinization for innovation and rules for the exercise of professional discretion.[2]

However understandable professional dissatisfaction may be, it seems, unlikely that large numbers of social workers will move toward a private solo practitioner model, especially now when the social welfare and social action goals of the profession more than ever require organized forms of planning and pressures.

The author contends that there is a great deal of commonality of form and interest between the social work bureauracy and the social work profession and that this commonality adds strength to each and makes possible a contribution to social welfare that neither could make alone. If this is true, attempting a resolution of the conflict is important if only because of the certainty that the historic unity of social work and social agencies will be further tested as social work increasingly becomes an "emerged profession." Furthermore, the situation will be exacerbated by pressure to redefine social service activities in order to make use of the abilities of social workers with differing levels of professional preparation. The successful use of all social work personnel will very likely depend upon adherence to administrative structures and procedures and the appropriate and innovative use of graduate and bachelor degree, bureaucracy-wise social workers, at the same time that new groups with less educational background will be seeking their own professional identity.[3]

Professionalism and Bureaucracy Defined

The development of social work as a profession parallels the development of social agencies. The fact that social work emerged out of the necessities of social agencies and, indeed, that its emergence was "facilitated by bureaucratic pressures nurturing professionalism at the expense of voluntarism" is well known.[4] Thus, the early mutual social work - social agency dependence guaranteed the eventual professional-bureaucratic tensions which plague their relationship today.

> The social agency provided the worker with opportunities for a creative professional career, but the "laws of organizational behavior" required that the worker align her individual needs with the standards and procedures the agency had formulated to help accomplish its ends with a minimum of friction, confusion, and waste of personnel or resources.[5]

That such alignment was not easily accomplished is demonstrated by the development of "supervision as a helping process akin to casework... coupled with a stress upon the supervisor's singular administrative responsibilities.[6] This effort to reduce tensions by integrating professional and bureaucratic roles in the person of the supervisor was never a total success, if only because social work's search for status and acceptance as a profession could not tolerate continued dependence upon administrative forms for its ultimate existence. The failure to recognize the essential disparity of the two roles leads in our own times to an unwillingness to recognize common characteristics and, consequently, to a lessening of effective use of tried resources.

A review of the elements which comprise the meaning of professionalism and bureaucracy is in order.[7] Professionalism denotes the following:

1. The application of objective standards of craftsmanship and accomplishment to one's own work -- that is, to work on one's own.
2. Autonomy of decision making and of performance.
3. Deference only to superior professional knowledge -- that is, to colleagual authority.
4. Professional group orientation.

5. Allegiance to professional standards.
6. Reward measured in professional status and stature.
7. Service, rather than self-interest, as a behavioral principle.

In contrast, bureaucracy denotes the following:

1. Hierarchical control, supervision, and guidance.
2. A relationship among rank, ability, and power -- that is, lower rank is associated with lower abilities.
3. Allegiance to the organization.
4. Reward measured in economic terms.
5. Reward related to rank, ability, and power -- and organizational allegiance.

The historical practice of social work in the context of a bureaucratic model has already been noted. A consequence of this practice, also noted above, was that social work differentiated levels of professional stature and professional authority in accordance with bureaucratic standards and, thus, professional achievement and reward were linked with hierarchical, administrative rank. Until recently, the link was not seriously challenged and even now creates confusion in the assessment of professional status.[8]

That managerial ability and professional competence are not synonomous is, interestingly enough, a reality of which industry and business, increasingly dependent upon scientific research, have long been cognizant. Writing in the Harvard Business Review in 1952, Drucker stated the situation too strongly perhaps but, nevertheless, forthrightly:

> By and large the better a man is in his profession the poorer an administrator he is likely to be. And the better a man is professionally, the less respect for administrative work and administrative ability he is likely to have....This means that the (hierarchical) promotion is likely to go to a man for whose professional abilities his fellow workers have little respect.[9]

Making a similar point for a profession whose unique *raison d'etre* lies essentially in the offer of a direct helping relationship, Rosen wrote:

> Any model which tends to remove more MSW social workers from the field and relegate them to positions behind an administrative desk is dysfunctional to client, community and the profession itself.[10]

One need not agree that social workers who move into administra positions are less able or less respected to understand disaffection for a delivery system whose structure and rewards undervalue their basic professional practice. Furthermore, a social agency system which concretizes the superiority of administrative over professional behavior not only encourages the alienation of professionals but also obscures areas of common concern.

In summary, resolution of bureaucratic-professional conflict demands:

1) recognition that the conflict exists, 2) a new approach on the part of social agencies to rewards and incentives for professional practice, and 3) the willingness of social workers to recognize the significance of social agencies for fulfilling the goals of soci work.

What Research Tells Us

A sociologist, Alvin Gouldner, directed one of the studies which brought wide-spread attention to the existence of bureaucratic-professional conflict for the professional working in an organized entity. Gouldner identified two gross groupings in his study population, Cosmopolitans, and Locals.[11]

1. Cosmopolitans: those low in loyality to the employing organization, high on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an outer reference group.
2. Locals: those high on loyality to the employing organization, low on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an inner reference group.

Among other differences, it was found that Cosmopolitans were more likely than Locals "to maintain that if they saw no opportunity to do their own personal research...they would find their jobs less satisfying," and the Cosmopolitans "showed less organizational loyality...in that they would more readily leave...."[12]

Similar studies have demonstrated generally similar results.[13] in one, Billingsly explored the bureaucratic and professional orientation patterns among professionally educated caseworkers in two voluntary social agencies. His findings were "consistent with those of other studies...which show that workers with professional orientations are more actively identified with their professional groups than are those who exhibit bureaucratic orientation."[14] Billingsly found that about one-third of the staff of each of the two agencies studies could be labeled "professionals" and had this to say about them:

> When they perceive that professional standards conflict with agency policies and procedures or client needs, or community pressures, they believe they should give primary allegiance to the professional standards.... They exhibit a ready tendency to resolve role conflicts in favor of professional standards. They may, consequently, feel free to leave the agency if it interferes with their professional practice. Many of the job changes in social casework may be a reflection of this orientation.[15]

Billingsly concluded with a warning of possible stalemate between opposing professional-bureaucratic forces:

> As social work develops as a profession it is perhaps, taking on more of the attributes of professionalism....At the same time, however, social work agencies...may be showing increasing similarities with other formal organizations, with their bureaucratic elements which do not always fit into these professional standards.[16]

Prophetically, Gouldner has written that "the full development of modern patterns of administration, with their characteristic stress on expertise and scientific knowledge, appears to be contingent on the decline of conflict among those factors which create divergence of loyalities between organizational and professional realities."[17] How then to lessen the divergence of loyalities between social agencies and social workers? How to permit the full development of social services?

Areas of Commonality and Common Concern

Vinter has described the social worker as a sophisticated and accomplished organization man.[18] This sophistication denotes an ability to practice in and, of more professional significance, to make use of organizational structure for social work helping purposes. Such ability has been hammered out over the years since the first social agency took shape in Buffalo in 1877. Logic would suggest that the social worker-social agency tie has had some base in soundness, over and above the historical accident of their joint beginnings. What is it that has joined this special kind of professional and special kind of organization? Is there reason to believe that their tie can hold under current testing?

Assuming, as we already have, that bureaucracies and professions have areas of marked differences, they nevertheless share certain essential characteristics. A singular and most important characteristic shared by the social agency and social work is the purpose for which each exists, that is, their common social welfare purpose, their responsibility for service to people in need. The social agency has been defined as "an organization to express the will of a society or of some group in that society as to social welfare."[19] Although social work has defied ultimate definition, the similarity of its social welfare purpose is demonstrated in the profession's "Working Definition of Social Work Practice":

> Social work has developed out of a community recognition of the need to provide services to meet basic needs, services which require the intervention of practitioners trained to understand the services, themselves, the individuals, and the means for bringing all together. Thus, there is a social responsibility inherent in the

> practitioner's role for the way in which services are rendered."[20]

The unity of social welfare purpose and responsibility carried by the social agency and by social work--the unity of their community sanctioning--is made explicit by the Working Definition's statement that public agencies, voluntary agencies, and the organized profession itself comprise the three sources from which "the authority and power of the practitioner" derive.[21] Although the relationship between professionals and social agencies has been sorely tried since 1958, when the "Working Definition" was published, the definitio has not been abandoned by the National Association of Social Workers.

The unifying purpose and responsibility of the social agency and of social work enhance the logic by which other characteristics which ordinarily separate bureaucracies from professions support a contrary tendency in the social welfare establishment. Authority and the use of authority, for example, are essential to the effective operation of bureaucracies and professions. True, the peculiar characteristic of bureaucratic authority is hierachical in nature; that of professions, knowledge based. In the first, the "ultimate justification" of an act "is that it is in line with the organization' rules and regulations, and that it has been approved...by a superior rank."[22] In the latter, the ultimate justification for an act "is that it is to the best of the professional's knowledge, the right act."[23] Nevertheless, the authority of each stems from reliance upon a specified sphere of competence and this competence is based on a systematized, regulated, and disciplined core of knowledge.

Weber made the point for bureaucracies:

> Bureaucratic administration means fundamentally the exercise of control on the basis of knowledge. This is the feature of it which makes it specifically rational. This consists on the one hand in technical knowledge, which by itself, is sufficient to ensure it a position of extraordinary power. But in addition to this, bureucratic organizations...have the tendency to increase their power still further by the knowledge growing out of experience in the service.[24]

The statement explains the contribution that social workers -- Vinter's sophisticated organizational men -- have made and can continue to make from "knowledge growing out of experience in the service" to the effectiveness of a delivery system that is a social agency.

In bureaucracies, as in professions, authority and the use of authority derive from and lead to technically competent performance. In the preceding quotation, Weber indicated this. Elsewhere, he furthers the point when he speaks of an "administrative organ" as "a continuous organization of offical function" with specified spheres of competence, the latter involving "obligations to perform."[25] Similarly, obligations flow from the claim of professional competence.

> Professionals profess. They profess to know better than others the nature of certain matters, and to know better than their clients what ails them or their affairs. This is the essence of the professional idea....[26]

If, then, a social agency is an organization whose "co-operative behaviors are equivalent to social work goals,"[27] if thier authority and competence flow from shared experience and sanctioning, they can indeed include among their obligations the obligation to perform jointly to their fullest potential.

One must stress again that the obligations of social agencies and of social work are impelled by their common social welfare purpose to serve people in need and to serve society through the delineation and implementation of social welfare policy. The extent to which they have failed need not be attributed to the separate failure of the social agency or of the professional social worker. One cannot lightly blame the other when failure may be a function of thier having lost sight of what is jointly available for an enriched fulfillment of society's mandate to both.

This necessity for bureaucracies and professions to meet obligations draws attention to another common characteristic of social agencies and of social work, objectiveness. Positions in the bureaucratic hierarchy are not to be appropriated for individual purposes but, rather, are formally established to secure the purely objective and independent character of the conduct of the office(s) so that (they are) oriented only to the relevant norms."[28] Objectivity in relation to personnel and to task assignment is vital to the efficient and effective operation of bureaucracies, since it helps make the administrative organization "superior...in precision, in stability, in the stringency of its discipline, and in its reliability."[29] Objectivity, as a characteristic of professions, is geared to persons served and the act of serving also requires relevant norms.

> (Professional) norms dictate not only that the practitioner render technically competent, high quality service; but that he be impersonal, objective (the professional avoids emotional

> involvement), impartial (he does not discriminate, he gives equal service regardless of personal sentiment), and be motivated by a service ideal (devotion to the client's interests more than profit should be guide decisions when the two are in conflict.)[30]

The objectivity of a social agency-bureaucracy and of the social work profession need not denote lack of concern for clientele. Quite the contrary, objectivity as interpreted above by Weber and Wilensky and Lebeaux offer an unusual opportunity for equitable social service delivery and, beyond that, for the observation of what current service tells us about the need for change and for distributive justice. The possibilities for joint bureaucratic-professional effort on behalf of people hardly need rehearsing.[31]

The achievement of potential, however, leads the social agency-bureaucracy to a unique personnel situation. Whereas the hierarchical structuring of positions in the model bureaucracy assumes that competence and decision-making authority rise vertically and comes to final rest in the person of the administrator, such structuring in the social agency places the direct service worker and direct service decision-making authority at the lowest administrative rungs. No matter what skill is involved in running the agency, the basic technology of offering service and, therefore, the quality of the agency rests with the social service worker. Thus, the traditional pyramidal diagram of bureaucratic structure has limited reality for the output of a social agency dependent upon professionals for service delivery.

The promotion by Schools of Social Work of professional education for social administration, whatever the validity, does not resolve the dilemma, since having administrative positions filled by social workers does not guarantee a colleagual model of agency operation. History has given the lie to this. Nevertheless, where the desire to do so exists, having administrative, line positions filled by professionals can give hope to the matching of organizationa and professional goals. A truly co-operative working relationship can "mean that professional activity is recognized as the major goal activity, and that the needs of professionals will be more likely to receive understanding attention."[32] A requirement here is that professionals holding administrative positions value themselves as social work professionals.

A guarantee that professional activity will continue central to the social agency's operation can emerge from admission that each needs the other for survival as viable contributors to social welfare. The social welfare purpose of social agencies cannot be accomplished, nor the loyalities of employees by retained, by hiring professionally educated workers who are treated and rewarded as bureaucratic low-men-on-the-totem-pole. Such treatment simply aggravates the "cosmopolitan" attitudes of professionals and encourages their search for more professionally fulfilling positions.

> A commitment to professional skills will be associated with low organizational loyalty only if professional opportunities are more limited in the organization under consideration...[33]

In other words, the social agency must take heed of the meaning of professionalism, of what it means to be a professional. It must provide an atmosphere for professional practice and opportunities for professional development, as well as rewards commensurate with professional stature, if it wishes to recruit and retain professionals for the practice of social work.

Assuming that social workers will continue, in the main, to practice in social agencies, both because of the availability of job opportunities and because of the opportunities for fulfilling professional commitments, professionals must explore willingly and honestly their use of the social agency for social good and their own part in any failure of social agencies to operate for social welfare.

> A satisfactory integration...is one in which the social worker...is able to hold incompatible elements...in realistic perspective and even capitalize on...inherent conflict in order to promote change. He does not make the assumption that limited service...means no service at all, nor does he confuse his own feelings of inadequacy as a helping person with the restrictions the bureaucracy places on him.[34]

Even more interesting for consideration by social workers is the possibility that successful practice in social agencies can further the emergence of social work as a full-fledged profession and as a guarantor of the well-being of society.

> The people in organizations will be... the innovators, the people who push back the frontiers of theoretical and practical knowledge related to their profession, who will invent new ways of bringing professional services to everyone, not merely to the solvent or sophisticated few. Indeed,... it (is) likely that the professional conscience, the superego, of many

professionals will be lodged in that segment of professionals who work in complicated settings, for they must, in order to survive, be sensitive to more problems and to a greater variety of points of view.

FOOTNOTES

[1] See, for example: George A. Brager, "Advocacy and Political Behavior," *Social Work*, Vol. 13 (April, 1968), 5-15; Lawrence Shulman, *A Casebook of Social Work with Groups: The Mediating Model*, (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969); Irving Piliavin, "Restructuring The Provision of Social Services," *Social Work*, Vol. 13 (January, 1968), 34-41.

[2] Scott Briar; "Social Casework: Past, Present, and Future," *Social Work*, Vol. 13, (January, 1968) 9-10.

[3] This article does not deal directly with the attack on professional credentialism an attack which further strained relationships between the professional and social agency establishments. This particular struggle would seem to have ground to a halt with some acceptance that there is value in formal recognition of levels of competence. See, for example, Donald Feldstein, "Do We Need Professions in Our Society: Professionalism versus Consumerism," *Social Work*, Vol.16 (October, 1971), 5-11; and Frank Riessman "Editorial: The 'Vocationalization' of Higher Education: Duping the Poor," *Social Policy*, Vol. 2 (May/June, 1971) 3-4.

[4] Roy Lubove, *The Professional Altruist*, (New YOrk: Atheneum Press, 1968), p. 159. The entire book is a treatment in detail of the subject.

[5] *Ibid*., 169.

[6] *Ibid*.

[7] The elements are culled from many sources. See among others, Peter F. Drucker, "Management and the Professional Employee," *Harvard Business Review*, XXX (May/June, 1952), 84-90; Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," *Social Work*, Vol. 2 (July, 1957), 45-56; Harold L. Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone?" *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 70 (September, 1964), 137-158; and Feldstein, *Op. Cit.*.

[8] See: Paul Weinberger, "Assessing Professional Status in Social Welfare," *Personnel Information: NASW*, Vol. 10 (July, 1967), 1 and 45-47. Weinberger reports a study of "Current reality" of social work's status. The findings were based on a comparison of "a high-status group in social work, agency administrators," with psychiatrists in private practice and in institutions, clinical psychologists, and public-school teachers. In other words, a group of administrators who happen to be social workers were compared with *practitioners* of other professions. Weinberger found that the social work-administrators perceived their status as exceeding the psychologists and teachers and approximating

psychiatrists in private practice. Weinberger sees recruitment possibilities in the fact that "positions of high professional status can be attained in social work." He failed to recognize the respect the social worker-administrators seem to have for professionals who remain in private practice and the deterrence to recruitment there might be in finding that high status in social work is to be found in administrative positions rather than in professional practice.

[9] Drucker, *Op. Cit.*, p. 86.

[10] Alex Rosen, "Book Review," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vo. 4, (Fall, 1968), 902.

[11] Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward An Analysis of Latent Social Roles," *Administrative Service Quarterly*, XX, Part I (December, 1957) 290.

[12] *Ibid.*, 295.

[13] See for example: Leonard Reisman, "A Study of Role Concepts in Bureaucracy," *Social Forces*, XXV (March, 1949) 305-10; Peter M. Blau and Richard W. Scott, *Formal Organizations*, San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962.

[14] Andrew Billingsly, "Bureaucratic and Professional Orientation Patterns in Social Casework," *Social Service Review*, XXXVII (December, 1964), 403.

[15] *Ibid.*, 405.

[16] *Ibid.*, 407.

[17] Gouldner, Part II, (March, 1958) 466.

[18] Robert, D. Vinter, "The Social Structure of Services" in *Issues in American Social Work*, Alfred J. Kahn (ed.), (New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 242.

[19] Harleigh Trecker, *New Understandings of Administration* (New York: Association Press, 1961), 44.

[20] NASW, "Working Definition of Social Work Practice", "*Social Work*, Vol. 3 (April, 1958).

[21] *Ibid.*

[22] Ametai Etzioni, *Modern Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964), 76.

[23] *Ibid.*

[24] A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons (eds.), Max Weber: *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization* (New York: The Free Press, 1966) 339.

[25] Ibid., 330.

[26] Everett C. Hughes, "Professions," in Kenneth S. Lynn (ed.), *The Professions in America* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1967), p. 2.

[27] Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Differential Use of Social Work Manpower* (New York: NASW, 1968), p.53.

[28] Weber, 337.

[29] *Ibid*.

[30] Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, *Industrial Society and Social Welfare* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1959) p. 284.

[31] For a summation of some experiments, see Archie Hanlan, "Casework Beyond Bureaucracy," *Social Casework*, Vol. 52 (April, 1971), 195-199.

[32] Etzioni, 82.

[33] Blau and Scott, 71.

[34] A. D. Green, "The Professional Social Worker in the Bureaucracy," Social Service Review, XL (March, 1966), 80.

[35] Hughes, 12.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA
MANAGEMENT SEMINAR 1/10/75

EXPERIENCING SOCIAL WORK ADMINISTRATION IN THE SEVENTIES

Irene F. Pernsley

I am glad for the opportunity to participate in this seminar with friends, colleagues, and as yet unindicted co-conspirators in a plot to improve management in human servies. I am also, of course, very pleased to be asked to talk to this distinguished and select group of participants.

For many years I have spoken out about the need for more and better training for the management of human services; how unprepared we are to deal with massive delivery systems, how ill-equipped to assume responsibilities at higher levels of administration, etc. The moral to all this, I suppose, is that speaker of brave words must be prepared for bold action. It is because I have struggled personally with this problem of management in the delivery of human services, and want to share some of my observations and experiences with you that I come to speak to you today.

As a frame of reference for my comments, I'd like to tell you a little about our responsibility and what it is that we are trying to administer. Our task here in this region is to manage the Department of Public Welfare's operations in the Southeastern part of the state. Our physical area is deceptively small when we consider that our counties (Bucks, Chester, Delaware, Montgomery, and Philadelphia) are only five out of the Commonwealth's 67 counties. However, our four million residents in this region constitute one-third of the state's population.

We are more highly urbanized here, of course, because of Philadelphia's being located in this region. We disperse 52% of the state's public assistance benefits. Forty-four percent of the state's medical assistance payments are made in this region. Thirty-five percent of the people who use food stamps live here. One-third of the state's citizens over 65 years of age live here. There is more minority representation here than elsewhere in Pennsylvania. We employ nearly 12,000 people in our operations here, most of them in our seven institutions for the mentally ill and mentally retarded. One-fourth of the state's institutionalized population is in this region.

We supervise, license and inspect human service facilities and programs. As an example, a Regional Commissioner of Mental Health supervises the superintendents of the mental health institutions, and specialized staff monitor specific components of the operation such as program and administration. We own and operate some agencies and institutions, we regulate and fund others. So, in the fiscal year 73-74, our operating budget for these five counties in the Southeastern Region was $645,000,000. This includes cash grants, medical assistance, food stamps, and grants for programs involving mental retardation, mental health, aging, child welfare, day care, foster care, grants to communities, purchase of service contracts for a whole range of services from homemakers to Nursing Home Relocation Teams. $645,000,000 - not very far behind the Philadelphia Electric Budget which was $766,000,000 for the same period and the same geographic area. So, like it or not, we are big business. Human services is big business, and needs to be addressed as such.

Dr. Lewis, in his paper, points out some very essential differences between our services and clientele, and those of business. We cannot, because of these differences, adopt wholesale the tools of their trade. But the rapid and accelerating pace of social change, the increased complexity of the human problem, etc., really do dictate the need for constant updating of the tools of our own trade. We can learn as we have in the past, from other professions and disciplines - and management is one of them. But, I ask myself a question - are we ready for this? I understand today that you are - I am very glad to know that. Because we are, that doesn't mean that everybody is, and it doesn't mean that we won't have second thoughts.

We have been enriched by content from and association with other fields including psychology, psychiatry, sociology, medicine, law. There appears to have been a reluctance on both sides for social work and management to join forces as a structured part of an educational process. Has management science represented a threat to us? I think that perhaps it has, and still does - particularly in today's climate of suspicion about organizations and government(with good reason) and in today's clamor for accountability for expenditure of taxpayers' money, and of voluntary dollars as well.

The demand is for people at the top whose knowledge and skills seem relevant to the above concerns of society, and whose knowledge and skills can be clearly identified and communicated. Trends in our Department suggest a reaching out for skills that bring a different dimension to the management of our mammoth task. You may know that our new Secretary of Welfare is an industrial engineer and comes to us with considerable management experience. My Basic Family Maintenance office which manages the public assistance program is staffed with industrial engineers and systems analysts as well as with professional social workers. The use of management personnel in that program is unusual in our system, but has been the key in getting the job done.

I'm certain that you have already dealt with the question of whether certain management concepts and techniques run contrary to the value which we in social work place upon humanness, individuality, choice, etc., and whether we fear that a partnership with management will result in the sacrifice of such values to "efficiency" and words like that. These were very real issues for me in coming to terms with the separation of eligibility and service, for example. I know that help beyond financial can be given to a public assistance applicant or a recipient through the use of the program requirement. I've seen it happen. I've been a part of that process; I know that the potential is there, and that it's endless. But in view of the increasing volume of demand upon us (in the Philadelphia County alone, we now average some 550 or more applications every working day), and the scarcity of resources, it is totally unrealistic to try to approach the income maintenance task in that way.

We have therefore isolated that function which most lends itself to a systems approach and proceeded accordingly. There is no less emphasis on the need for respect of the client in obtaining and giving information necessary to complete a transaction. I firmly believe that a system which results in prompt, courteous meeting of presenting need, in this case - financial, is a humane system and that increased efficiency becomes an expression of humaneness. I would add that our Commissioner for Income Maintenance, with his training in industrial engineering and business management, is as concerned as I am that a family needing help today, gets help today. We have also gone far in exploring mechanized means of grant computation, processing of data for use as supervisory/management tools, etc., and look forward with excitement to the early acquisition of that capability which we consider an absolute necessity.

Our efforts toward improved management of social services is reflected in the Delaware County Social Services model that was developed some years ago with the technical assistance of the American Public Welfare Association. Joe Murphy here (a seminar participant) had a significant part in helping us develop that model. In essence, the Social Services product is clearly defined with a great deal of specificity and quantified to the extent possible. Units are staffed for various designated specialties - services planning units, facilitative service units, a management information systems unit, a service mobilization unit, etc. There is also computerized tabulation of data on case openings, on client characteristics, service requests, service products, and delivery, unmet needs, and service activity time. While this system does not work perfectly, it is in place, and it represents some degree of success in the use of appropriate technology in the delivery of and accountability for social services.

There are other areas of knowledge and skill to which management can provide input. Recognizing that the level of skill needed relates to the level of management in which one is involved, I will define our level as "rather top" - a little short of top, but above middle. From this level, my key staff suggest several areas where we can benefit by content and experience from the field of management.

Information Systems

We need access to more current information - more accurate information - and sometimes, more specific information on which to base decisions, set priorities, make choices, project the consequences of those choices; information with which to plan more effectively, to predict, and to hopefully have some part in influencing changes rather than responding to changes that have already occurred. And as I have earlier indicated, our need in this region is clearly for a computerized information system.

Manpower

- Screening of manpower; the matching of ability and potential with the task requirement. And while we do have expertise here, costly mistakes are made in the selection and promotion of personnel. We did at one point, attempt an executive inventory which seemed to hold promise for selection of executive personnel from within our own resources. There is some potential help for us in an expanded use of such a tool.

- The organization of manpower into patterns and relationships which best facilitate the achievement of our mission, then the training of that manpower, particularly training for management

- Labor relations, about which I can hardly say enough. Some years ago when labor was coming into its own in public service here, we had some very difficult experiences as we engaged with staff who were aspiring to organize, to become leaders, to maximize the potential of the moment. Some factors were on our side - lots of stamina - ability to analyze the dynamics of the situation, the issues and alternatives. What was really needed was training - preparation to deal with this new and different ball game. I believe that agencies and schools have a responsibility to anticipate these kinds of need as they come up on the horizon, and to respond with appropriate training to enable administrators to carry their responsibility. APWA did anticipate this need, and incorporated labor relations into regional conferences. I remember very well being brash enough to lead such a panel in preparation for which I read some books and the State Legislation. How little did I know!

You may have heard on KYW of a statewide meeting todav through which we hope a walk-out of institutional employees can be averted. This illustrates one of those important differences between ourselves and business. When labor walks out - in let's say the auto industry, cars aren't made for awhile, money isn't made, money may even be lost. If labor walks out of our institutions, we may lose lives. There are some very fragile people in our instituitons - with very tenuous holds on life. And, that's why we really need to know what we are doing in this business! There is no place for amateurism - too much is at stake.

Public Relations

Just as industry, unions, universities, churches, make use of planned public relations efforts to gain support through public understanding, so should those of us who administer human services programs take this function seriously. We should certainly be aware of the importance of public relations as a valuable tool, and develop some ability to ascertain and evaluate public opinion, attitudes; to develop policies and programs in response to those identified needs, and of course to implement action which will earn public understanding, acceptance and support. And, while I do know that a good product - a job well done - is the best P.R. agent one can have, that product too needs to be communicated and interpreted with skill. For example, our recent war on ineligibility in this state could have been and many times was, interpreted as anti-the-poor, as a move to "throw the bums off welfare". Or it could have been interpreted as the responsible effort which it was to avoid the loss of millions of dollars in federal sanctions, to insure that persons who are eligible do really receive what is due them, and from the savings make additional benefits available, which we were able to do.

We are, as you well know, in an environment where competition for funds is very great - where other causes are more popular than ours. Effective public education - public relations can be one of our most important resources in this struggle.

I won't expand on other areas, but the staff suggested several more with which I concur, including budgeting, cost analysis, decision-making and problem-solving theory. I do not mean to suggest that an administrator must be an expert in all these areas. However, we at least need to be aware and conversant to the extent that we can recognize the need for special assistance and can properly utilize staff or consultants in these areas of specialty. Many of the same forces are at work in human services delivery as in other enterprises - rising costs and inflation, consumer demands for greater quality, public demands for greater accountability, internal demands for greater benefits and participation, etc. I cannot support too much the necessity for sound, full preparation which can enable one to move into such challenges with more than beginning competence and perform well, granting that growth should occur with experience.

I cannot conclude without emphasizing the value of what we do know. I have no question about that, and could provide many illustrations. I'm sure you could, too. But to meet the demands of managing the big business which Human Services has become, we do, in fact, need more. And I wish to convey a sense of urgency too about this need to achieve a proper blend of knowledge and skill if we are to produce managers who can help us fulfill our responsibilities to our citizens and to our profession.

In closing, I will read from an article which appeared in our local Today's Post on December 13th. The headline: Executives Deal with the Seventies' Challenge. It goes on to say that seldom has the executive suite been subjected to such pressure as it is now enduring. And whether it can solve these problems at all is debatable. A Dr. Jennings who is a management professor at Michigan State University is very concerned that many of the men who head the nation's largest companies are ill-equipped to deal with the multi-faceted challenges before them. Products of the 1960's when the focus of their efforts was mainly on profits, these men are being challenged now by capital shortages, consumerism, ecological concerns, nationalism, controls, safety, equality, etc., (and that lets us know that we don't have any monopoly on the problemsof management). It is further stated that on top of all this, executives are now faced with demands to humanize the assembly line! This leads me to conclude that in meeting the challenge of the seventies, social work and management would do well to learn from each other.

1974-1975

NATIONAL PROJECT ON EDUCATION FOR MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES

THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
AND THE WHARTON SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

REPORT ON A NATIONAL SURVEY OF 63 GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK OFFERING CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN SOCIAL WELFARE ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

APRIL 1975

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I. Introduction

This survey of continuing education programs in social welfare administration and management has been conducted as one part of the National Project on Education for Management of Social Services of the School of Social Work of the University of Pennsylvania.* One key objective of this project is the development of curriculum material for continuing education programs in management and administration of social services.

There are two assumptions upon which the project is based. The first is that the knowledge and technology of business management science can be utilized by administrators of social services for more effective and efficient administration of their programs. The second is that programs of management education should be developed by interprofessional collaboration between social work and business management education to make the knowledge, drawn from business management, applicable to social services administration and available to students in administration.

II. Purpose

This survey had a three-fold purpose. The first was to learn to what extent continuing education programs are presently teaching managerial, administrative content in an interdisciplinary or interprofessional manner.**

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* The National Education for Management Project was funded by the Social Rehabilitation Service of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, July 1, 1974-June 30, 1975 (Project #47-P90040/3-

** For the purpose of this survey, we are defining interdisciplin teaching as that approach which utilizes a member of a discipline

The second was to find out whether or not the management content, which has been identified by this project as being most relevant to the educational needs of social work administrators, is currently being taught in programs of continuing education being offered to social work administrators. The third purpose was to identify any significant gaps in the content of continuing education offerings and programs.

III. Design of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to be completed by directors of continuing education programs in schools of social work. The questions were related to the knowledge from management science which has been identified by the faculty members from the School of Social Work and the Wharton School as the most essential to be included in an educational curriculum for the administration of social services. Prior to being administered, the questionnaire was pretested by doctoral students at the School of Social Work of the University of Pennsylvania, and was designed to take about a quarter of an hour to complete.

(e.g., economics, history, sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology, management science, and others) to teach knowledge from that discipline relating the content to the educational aims and needs of a profession. Interprofessional teaching might involve lawyers, physicians, engineers, or public administrators similarly in presenting knowledge from their professions which is deemed useful to other professions. It is conceivable that both interdisciplinary and interprofessional teaching can be done concurrently within an educational program in social work.

IV. Sample

The sample surveyed consisted of sixty-three graduate schools of social work which were identified from the Council on Social Work Education's current listing of schools conducting continuing education programs. Of the sixty-three questionnaires mailed, slightly more than one half (52%) were returned.

V. Data analysis

Seventy-seven percent of the schools to which the questionnaire was directed are currently conducting programs in social welfare administration, and fifteen percent are in the process of planning such programs. More than half (58%) of the programs are now taught in an interdisciplinary manner. There are eight schools planning to carry out such programs. Forty-two percent of the programs now in operation are being taught interprofessionally.

Table A represents the percentage of continuing education programs currently teaching specified management curriculum content. These percentages are important as one way of determining the level of current interest in the management curriculum content specified by the Wharton School and the School of Social Work. A high percentage might indicate a high level of need for a specific management content area.

Three content areas are of particular interest in that 97% of the respondents identified them as presently being taught. They are: (1) evaluation of agency program and performance;

(2) accountability; and (3) leadership influence.

The following areas are currently being taught in 90% or more of the programs: control of agency performance; intergroup behavior; and leadership styles.

With the exception of the "Decision Tree Method," a technique used in cost benefit analysis, all of the content listed is presently being taught by at least 73% of the respondents (for exact percentages see Table A).

The following chart shows which of five content areas, included in the University of Pennsylvania curricular material, are most frequently not included in the courses offered by the schools that participated in this survey:

Content areas included in University of Pa. material	Number of schools in survey not including this content in their courses
1. Program planning and budgeting	just more than one half
2. The decision tree method	less than one half
3. Measuring effectiveness of client outreach programs	less than one half
4. Innovation and information retrieval systems	more than one fourth
5. conflict responses	less than one fourth

Organizational behavior was ranked first by the respondents among the content which administrators need to learn. Program Development was ranked second as the most important, and Long Range Planning, third. The category "other" followed next in order of priority. Three respondents, rather than selecting one of our categories, identified an "other" as their first priority: the selections included fiscal resource development and allocation and budgeting; ,management styles (i.e., managerial behavior); and planning, organizing, actuating and measuring objectives.

Courses that were identified by the respondents as currently being taught as specialized aspects of management follow: social work management in health care settings; personnel policies, including advocacy policies; social action, and agency budgeting. In a workship entitled "How to Maximize Utilization of Staff through Supervision," staff motivation, setting of goals, objectives, priorities, training and evaluation of staff, and skills in organizational change were included.

Grant writing was identified by several respondents as presently being offered in courses. Functional budgeting for social service executives, multi-level objective setting in social agencies, accountability and information systems for social agencies were also currently being taught as special courses. "Administration of residential group homes for child care" and "administration of aging" were typical of courses offered to meet the educational needs of managerial personnel in specialized fields.

Comments made by two or more respondents concerning any aspect of management content not covered in the questionnaire, but of interest to some of the respondents follow. The areas of work planning implementation and review were said to be most useful, including task analysis, performance review and manpower planning. "Material covering management in public service institutions was not covered well in the selection" was the comment of one respondent. Four respondents identified teaching methodology as "equally important as content." Skill and knowledge in generating funding and allocations of funds in relation to program development and service delivery, a basic task in executive management, was also highlighted.

VI. Summary and conclusions

The responses to this survey are limited to 34 out of 63 graduate schools of social work with continuing education programs. The information obtained from the 34 schools may be biased by half of the sample failing to respond, and should be used with caution for this reason. The schools that did respond report a significant involvement with teaching management knowledge and skills in interdisciplinary programs.

The three major categories designated by the Wharton School and the School of Social Work--program development, organizational behavior, and long range planning--were confirmed as the three most important content areas to include in a curriculum for managers of social services.

The major gaps indicated by the respondents are in the areas of effectiveness, client outreach programs, information retrieval systems, and organizational innovation. Fiscal management content was specified as particularly needed in a management curriculum, by a significant number of respondents.

With the advent of the new Social Services Act (Title XX), the importance of including these management content areas in a curriculum for managers of social services may become even more apparent.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY OF CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS
IN SOCIAL WELFARE ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Place a check next to the correct answer.

I.

1. Are you currently conducting or do you plan to conduct within the next year programs in social welfare administration and management?

   YES________________ NO________________

2. If yes, are your programs taught in an interdisciplinary or interprofessional manner?

   YES________________ NO________________

3. If yes, please indicate which:

   INTERDISCIPLINARY______________ INTERPROFESSIONAL________ OTHER_________

II. Do you include the following content areas in your program?

1. PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT, i.e.

   A. Program planning and budgeting: YES___ NO___
   B. Control of agency performance: YES___ NO___
   C. Evaluation of agency program and performance: YES___ NO___
   D. Accountability: YES___ NO___

2. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: i.e.

   A. Intergroup behavior YES___ NO___
      a. Leadership influence YES___ NO___
   B. Cost Benefit Evaluation YES___ NO___
      a. Cost Assessment YES___ NO___
      b. Decision Tree method YES___ NO___
      c. Critical Path Chart Plans YES___ NO___
      d. Pert Charts YES___ NO___
   C. Examination Procedure YES___ NO___
      a. Organization structure YES___ NO___
      b. Conflict response YES___ NO___
   D. Management Responsibility YES___ NO___
      a. Achievement motivation YES___ NO___
      b. Leadership style YES___ NO___
      c. Communication techniques, all written, tapes, carousels YES___ NO___

3. LONG RANGE PLANNING, i.e.

   A. Environmental concern YES___ NO___
   B. Mission goals YES___ NO___
   C. Effectiveness of client outreach programs YES___ NO___
   D. Innovation YES___ NO___
   E. Implementation of agency mission YES___ NO___
   F. Information retrieval system YES___ NO___

III. Many administrators are of the opinion that learning something about managerial programs is necessary. Please rank the following content areas order of the priority you place on the content administrators need to learn. Place a (1) in the box next to your first choice, (2) for your second choic (3) for your third choice, and (4) for other.

A. ____________ Program Development

B. ____________ Organizational Behavior

C. ____________ Long Range Planning

D. ____________ Other

E. If other, please indicate ______________________________

____

IV. If you are currently teaching a course comparable to management, please identify. (i.e., program content--Administration of Programs for the Aging

____

____

____

V. Any comments you may have concerning any aspect of management content not covered in the questionnaire.

____

____

____

APPENDIX B.

TABLE A.

PERCENTAGE OF CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS CURRENTLY TEACHING SPECIFIED MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM CONTENT

N=34	MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM CONTENT	PERCENTAGE YES	NO
	PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT, i.e.		
	Program Planning and Evaluation:	87.9	9.1
	Control of [illegible]:	90.9	6.7
	Evaluation of [illegible] and Performance	96.7	0.
	Accountability:	96.7	0.
	ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR, i.e.		
	Intergroup Behavior	90.9	6.7
	a. Leadership influence	72.7	0.
	Cost Benefit Evaluation	72.7	24.2
	a. Cost Assessment	69.7	27.
	b. Decision Tree Method	51.5	45.5
	c. Critical Path Chart Plans	72.7	24.2
	d. Pert Charts	72.7	24.2
	Examination Procedure	81.8	12.1
	a. Organization structure	63.6	9.1
	b. Conflict response	72.7	24.2
	Management Responsibility	87.9	9.1
	a. Achievement motivation	78.8	15.2
	b. Leadership style	81.8	6.1
	c. Communication techniques, all written, tapes, carousels	84.9	12.1
	LONG RANGE PLANNING, i.e.		
	Environmental Concern	72.8	24.2
	Mission goals	78.8	15.2
	Effectiveness of Client Outreach Program	54.6	42.4
	Innovation	69.7	27.3
	Implementation of Agency Mission	84.9	12.7
	Information [illegible] System	69.7	27.3

1974-1975

NATIONAL PROJECT ON EDUCATION FOR MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES

THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK AND
THE WHARTON SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Report on a survey of thirty-eight short-term educational programs on administration and management in the social services funded for July 1974 through June, 1975 by the Social and Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health Education and Welfare under Title IV, Section 426 of the Social Security Act.

BY

Mrs. Marlene Patterson
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University of Pennsylvania
and
Staff Assistant, National Project
May 1975

This is a report on thirty-eight short-term projects funded for the fiscal year July, 1974 through June, 1975, by the Social Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, under Title IV, Section 426 of the Amendments to the Social Security Act. The Common goal shared by the projects was that of enhancing administrative and management capacities in the social services.

Purpose

This survey was completed by the writer in her capacity as a Staff Assistant for the National Project on Education for Management of Social Services. The purpose of undertaking the survey was to learn more about the current state of the art throughout colleges and universities throughout the country in providing short term educational offerings to enhance administration and management of social services.

Methodology

The proposals from thirty-eight projects funded by the Department of Health Education and Welfare were reviewed in an attempt to identify the commonalities in their approaches to assessing and meeting top and middle management needs for training.

In addition, selected representatives from the faculty among them, conducting interdisciplinary projects, were interviewed using the same schedule of questions with a few additions. The supplementary questions were directed to learning of possible changes in the programs (made later than the original proposals) and also to elicit general reactions and impressions from the participating faculty about their conjoint efforts.

The thirty-eight projects were spread throughout the country in a variety of institutions of higher education. The thirty-eight proposals in nearly every region of the country were diverse. Their objectives and content differed. Some projects were quite complex with several discrete, component parts. Often there was a mix of training for direct service and training for middle and top management. For the purpose of this review which is focused on management content the direct service segment has been omitted from the analysis.

Only one of the projects reviewed offered a degree program in administration in social service. This project entitled Urban Leadership Management and Administration was designed to offer a program leading to a two-year MSW degree to minority group students. The current students were Blacks and Puerto Ricans. The remainder of the 38 projects were short-term training projects.

In 1974, faculty from the School of Social Work and the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania jointly identified a core curriculum in management and administration. The following seven content areas were selected as substantive ones. They can and have been elaborated on at some length, however, here they are given in sketch: 1) Organizational Behavior, 2) Program Planning, Development and Implementation, 3) Leadership and Personnel Management, 4) Financial Planning and Accountability, 5) Communication and Information Systems, 6) Program Evaluation, 7) The External Environment of the Organization.

The short term training programs were reviewed to find out whether or not the content selected for them was similar to or different from the content selected as the most important to enhance management and supervisory skills by the faculty at the University of Pennsylvania.

All the educational programs studied could be divided into four categories in relation to their educational content and their selection of instructional faculty:

Category	Educational Content and Use of Faculty	Number of Programs
I	Broad management and administrative content with an interdisciplinary or interprofessional* faculty group teaching.	19
II	Broad management and administrative content with social work and Social Welfare faculty teaching.	10
III	Concentration on only one special aspect of management with faculty with expertise in that aspect teaching administrative.	4
IV	No administrative content.	5
	Total	38

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*In this report, interdisciplinary refers to conjoint educational efforts among academic disciplines such as sociology, psychology, anthropology and social work. Interprofessional refers to similar collaboration among the faculty members from various professions such as social work, law, medicine and management.

One of the striking commonalities among many of the proposals was the clear recognition that needs assessment must involve the target group. As the writer of one project put it, "we reject the idea that short term training can be a pre-packaged set of materials or lectures. This is impossible no matter how skilled the trainer. It is desirable that each training project create a process among the trainers, the agency and the personnel to be trained." Another writer stated that "an in-service training program must be flexibly responsive to the changing needs of the practitioners." This meant that curriculum design was conducted as an on-going process, responsive to the needs of consumers of the training within the priorities defined by the state and federal agencies responsible for the funding.

These needs assessments soliciting and utilizing in-put from the potential consumers of the training program were conducted in a variety of ways. I will describe one model briefly to give an indication of the scope and complexity of this approach. The project at San Jose State University employed a program planning model developed by Andre DelBec and Andrew VanderVen. This model requires specific phases, group techniques and group roles in developing a program plan.

Phase One may be summarized as Needs Exploration. It involved the managers and delivers of child welfare services.

Phase Two was entitled Knowledge Exploration: the involvement of training resource individuals and organizations was enlisted here.

Phase Three relates to Priority Development. This involved the training resource people and project planning staff. Phase Four was Program Development. Again, the project planning staff was involved.

To accomplish their task, the group at San Jose formed two task forces to focus on need assessment. Membership was drawn from the staff of child welfare agencies. Task Force A focused on the management of child welfare service delivery systems.

Task Force B focused on the identification of training needs in a program service area, i.e., child abuse. The Task Force on management training needs was designed to have two sub-groups also. Sub-group A was composed of administrators and managers from local child welfare agnecies. They addressed themselves to management training needs. Sub-Group B was composed of 12 people from local child welfare agencies who addressed themselves to priorities inprogram service training. An additional step in these assessments involved the use of some recent reports from the Mental Health Commission of the Comprehensive Health Planning Association of the county.

The San Jose group then established two task forces made up of training resources personnel. They were organized in order to clarify needs and develope training designs. They gathered information by telephone survey and through correspondence. These efforts elicited information about a number of issues and probelms. They were grouped into 8 catagories:

1) organizational development 2) community development 3) training 4) social policy 5) board training 6) client systems 7) management theory and method 8) line supervision. The result of this elaborate planning model was an impressive proposal with genuine participation at manay levels. Other Proposals were not as elaborate, yet represented broad based planning.

It has been observed that the startling growth of financing for social welfare programs places these programs under increasing pressures to be accountable for the public funds they receive and for what is and is not accomplished with these funds. With the core content for administration in social services developed at the University of Pennsylvania in mind, the projects were reviewed particularly for those key areas which relate most directly to accountability. In the twenty-eight projects aimed at training top and middle management (this includes those with interdisciplinary and interprofessional faculty as well as those conducted by faculty from a single discipline) the following key areas were reviewed and identified: 1) Financial Management 2) Accountability 3) Systems Analysis for Human Services 4) Program Evaluation and Monitoring 5) Communication (including consumer participation and public relations) with the external environment 6) Specific techniques for planning and control such as Management by Objectives 7) Management information systems, decision theory and operations research. The following is a tally of the number of projects including these key areas in their teaching. The writer recognizes that there may be some inadvertant omissions. However, this brief tally gives some idea of the priorities selected as educational content for managerial training by faculties responsible for carrying out these projects.

Table 1. Subject Areas of Twenty-eight projects*offering training in management to social service administrators in 1974-75.

Subject Areas	Number of Projects Including These Subject Areas
Program Evaluation and Monitoring	15
Financial Management	14
Planning and Control Techniques, (mainly management by objectives)	9
Management Information Systems, Decision Theory, Operations Research	6
Accountability	6
Communication with External Environment	4
Systems Analysis for Human Services	3

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*Financed by *428 funds from the U.S.A. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and conducted by universities.

There was a considerable degree of variation and creativity among the project offerings. One project for example, proposed to use Management by Objectives as the approach to teaching communication skills, financial budgeting and personnel administration. One project focused on organizational development with a support system build in to the training design. Each participant had a partner from his place of work at the training program. This project also included sessions on community development and consumer participation.

The projects offered under category 3 - those which were of an administrative thrust yet highly specific, dealt with the following topics: 1- Functional job analysis, 2- Rationalization of personnel and training systesm, 3- Conflict resolutions and the production of a vidio tape focusing on this management concern, 4- Supervision by objectives with job performance evaluation related to the contractual goals and objectives of workers and supervisors.

Category 4 Non-management Projects

In some cases it was difficult to draw a fine line discerning those projects that for our purposes were not considered education for management. These generally were short-term training projects for direct service workers to enhance their skills in serving children and families. Examples of this group are as follows: 1) A child Welfare Training Project for abused and neglected children - 2) A project on supervision and consultation focused on both the supervisory and the teaching responsibilities of supervisors. Although in some of these projects, reference is made to the administrative, managerial tasks inherent in the supervisory and the workers role, for our purposes this did not warrant classification as a management project.

One project in this catagory was totally different in that it realted to the development of a training tool: namely, a monograph analyzing contract rural services.

Goals for child welfare services idealistically stated, usually include statements of the intent to respond to the needs of children without regard to race, color, religion or ethnic background. To do this requires some conscious efforts on the part of management to engage in behaviors designed to counteract the background pehnomenon of institutional racism. The omission of such concerns from the training of managers for the social services constitutes a serious oversight. For example, within the realm of accountability, providing equal employment opportunities represents an institutionalized managerial effort to reduce and end certain aspects of institutional racism and sexism. Training could provide the technical advice required for implementating these objectives and also stimulate a supportive setting in which the administrator could struggle with his or her own position, while exposed to a theoretical knowledge base. Within the planning and decision-making role of the administrator there are numerous occasions for action either to counteract or to acquiese to institutional racism.

In only one proposal was a plan for training and content designed to counter the effects of institutional racism on child welfare services. In two proposals where the potential clients for social services obviously were of non-White, non-European racial and cultural background, consideration was given to the ethnic and cultural variables that effect the delivery of child welfare services. In the other similar prljects this training content was completely omitted.

Undoubtably racial and ethnic minorities compose a portion of the staff and of the clientele of many of the projects. By the omission, a valuable opportunity for the trainers and teachers of managers and administrators to address the issue of racism, seems to be lost. There are many possible ways that such material could be introduced in the training program as a natural part. For example, it could be done in material on the role of the manager as leader or on the history and psychology of the organization. The notions of hierarchy and the workers place could be related to the American heritage of slavery and the caste system. This heritage has implications for the degree to which modern managers of social services are free and are prepared to implement equal employment mandates within public and private organizations. It also effects the extent to which they are open to developing social services which really meet the needs of children of ethnic and racial minorities as well as the needs of main-stream whites.

Case studies constitute another possible area in which material could be introduced to help participants deal with their level of racism.

Similarly sexism is a relevant topic for inclusion in the consideration of the topic of leadership and personnel management within social service organizations.

Summary and Conclusions

Thirty-eight funded projects for teaching management in the social services throughout the country have been reviewed. The planning process, content most often judged relevant and omissions were reviewed. Also the ways that continuing education programs are being offered to administrators in child welfare. There seems to be a genuine attempt to get in-put from the potential trainees about their training needs and the appropriate priorities: Their course content includes the traditional areas of education about administration such as organizational theory, finances, leadership and motivation as well as newer techniques of planning and control such as Management by Objectives and Program Planning Budget Systems. Additional new knowledge infused into these training programs includes Management Information Systems, Decision Theory and Operations Research. The writer's general impression is that these programs are mainly focused on financial management and the monitoring and the evaluation of programs. Research other than that specifically related to program evaluation was not included. There seemed a lack of inclination to deal with substantive, relevant value issues in these training projects, such as working for the elimination of racism within child welfare social services.

On the whole the writer sensed a commitment on the part of those who developed these projects to gain the knowledge, information, and techniques to prove that social workers can manage programs so as to accomplish social goals.

APPENDIX A

ADVISORY COMMITTEE to the
NATIONAL PROJECT on EDUCATION for
MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE
UNIVERSITY of PENNSYLVANIA
PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

1974-1975

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Mr. Chauncey Alexander	National Association of Social Workers
Mr. Howard Brabson	National Alliance of Black Social Workers
Ms. Dorothy Daly	Programs for Training and Management Catholic University of America
Mr. Keith Daugherty Mr. William McCurdy	Family Service Association
Mr. Howard Epstein	Southern Regional Education Board
Ms. F. Pauline Godwin	Community Services Administration, Social and Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Mr. Norman V. Lourie	Penna. Department of Public Welfare
Mr. Carl Scott	Council on Social Work Education
Ms. Clara Swan	Child Welfare League of America, Incorporated
Mr. Edward Weaver	American Public Welfare Association
Mr. Robert Wylie	Maine State Department of Health and Welfare

APPENDIX B

FACULTY and STAFF MEMBERS of the NATIONAL PROJECT on EDUCATION for MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE
UNIVERSITY of PENNSYLVANIA
PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

1974-1975

FACULTY

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Dr. Sue Henry	The School of Social Work
Dr. Herman Levin	The School of Social Work
Dr. Christopher Mader	The Wharton School
Dr. George Parks	The Wharton School
Professor Eleanor Ryder	The School of Social Work
Dr. Elisabeth Schaub	The School of Social Work
Dr. Max Silverstein	The School of Social Work
Dr. Francis Wolek	The Wharton School
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Dr. William Zucker	The Wharton School

STAFF

Mrs. Sandra Cohen, Masters Student	The School of Social Work
Mr. Harlan Gardiner, Masters Student	The Wharton School
Mrs. Marlene Patterson Doctoral Student	The School of Social Work
Mr. Douglas Whyte, Doctoral Student	The School of Social Work

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANTS at the
JANUARY, 1975 and JUNE, 1975 SESSIONS of the
SEMINARS on the
NATIONAL PROJECT on EDUCATION for
MANAGEMENT of SOCIAL WELFARE at the
UNIVERSITY of PENNSYLVANIA
in
PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

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Mr. Chauncey Alexander	National Association of Social Workers
Mr. Robert Baitty	Community Services Administration, Social and Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Ms. Mary Bogner	Boston University
Mr. Howard Brabson	National Alliance of Black Social Workers
Mrs. Frances Feldman	Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare, University of Southern California
Dr. David S. Franklin	University of Southern Calif.
Dr. Ralph Garber	Rutgers University
Dr. Gunther Geiss	Adelphi University
Ms. F. Pauline Godwin	Community Services Administration, Social and Rehabilitation Services, Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare
Dr. Stanley Good	University of Iowa
Dr. Jerry Griffin	Univeristy of Alabama
Dr. Howard Harlow	Indiana University of South Bend

PARTICIPANTS

Dr. Michael J. Kelly	University of Texas at Austin
Dr. Edwin C. Leonard	Indiana University
Dr. Harold Lewis	Hunter College of the City of New York
Mr. William McCurdy	Family Service Association of America
Mr. Joseph Murphy	Atlanta University
Mr. Charles T. O'Reilly	State University of New York at Albany
Dr. George Plutchok	University of Pittsburgh
Dr. Ted Raley	University of Oklahoma
Dr. Charles Sanders	St. Lukes Hospital Center Atlanta, Ga.
Mr. Carl Scott	Council on Social Work Education
Dr. Barbara K. Shore	University of Pittsburgh
Ms. Clara Swan	Child Welfare League of America, Incorporated
Dr. Harry J. Waters	University of Maine
Mr. Edward Weaver	American Public Welfare Assoc.
Mr. Robert Wylie	Maine State Department of Health and Welfare
Dr. John Yankey	University of Maine